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Not by the Sword Alone

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I

"Of all these, the bravest are the Belgae."

Thus, on a page of what has proved to be one of the world's best-selling textbooks, Julius Caesar pays tribute to the courage of an enemy people. With regard to the Belgae, Rome's most-renowned soldier indulges in no invectives and hurls no epithets.

Nor is this an isolated instance of Caesar's objectivity. Throughout the *Gallic War* there is no evidence of that hysteria so commonly affecting those engaging in armed conflict. In fact, the presentation is such that the reader, unless previously informed, would fail to identify the narrator as an active participant in the stirring events described.

This apparent detachment on the part of the author is largely achieved, of course, through the use of the third person. Nevertheless, the *Gallic War* is remarkably free from bombast and denunciation. Caesar's references to Ariovistus and Vercingetorix are in marked contrast to the rantings carried on today by some of us against those designated as our enemies. To persons regarding strong language as an indication of military competence, it may appear singular that Caesar did not submit at least one sample of pagan profanity to come reverberating down the ages.

After a number of years during which much was said and written about settling international disputes by arbitration, we are not only speaking and writing,

but also acting, from the opposite point of view. So, like ancient Rome, we resort to the sword. And while we have recourse to violence, we profess the benevolent ultimate purpose of schoolmastering certain parts of the world. Rome did some schoolmastering in her day, also. Even St. Paul could speak with pride of his Roman citizenship.

Before assuming the task of re-orienting the peoples of a considerable portion of the globe—if indeed the opportunity offers—it might be well for us as twentieth-century Americans to consider some of the qualities other than the mailed fist which went into the making of the "grandeur that was Rome." Truly, the story of the Romans brings to light more than enough cruelty and injustice. And there were certain single-track worthies, like old Cato with his *Carthago delenda est!* Yet, in an era lacking the printing press and other modern inventions, there lived Romans possessing those knightly attributes which caused their deeds to illumine the dark pages of history.

In other words, during the days of her greatness, Rome had among her citizenry individuals who had attained something like the full stature of manhood, and whose words and deeds did not proclaim them, essentially, barbarians, or perhaps, petulant children. Such a man was Julius Caesar. Having a great part to play on the world stage, he acted with a high degree of respect for his role. As Shakespeare causes him

to say: "Always I am Caesar." That is, Caesar must play the part of Caesar.

How do we play our part today, while the young men of the world's leading nations climb their Calvaries and women and children die miserably beneath destruction rained from the skies? Our printed pages abound with such expressions as "annihilation," "closing in for the kill," and "good hunting"—of human beings, of course. One of our most widely-circulated magazines¹ carries the sketch of an American soldier beside a dead German, the information being given that this particular American soldier—a man of Polish stock—has never been known to take a German prisoner. He is represented as hating all Germans. That being the case, he may well be in a state of perpetual rage on account of the fact that our army has a large number of men with Teutonic names. At least one of our generals is German born. Perhaps those of us who are of Anglo-Saxon descent do not meet the exacting standards of this ferocious Slav.

Then, there is a certain naval celebrity whose smiling countenance recently looked out at us from newspaper front pages in connection with his remark that there would be in the not-too-distant future an American celebration "where Tokyo was."² This, of course, is not the same officer who made the sophomoric observation three years ago that, in case of further trouble with Japan, the American navy would blow Tokyo off the map some fine afternoon.

A pontifical attitude toward Hitlerism is not consistent while we indulge in a similar violence of word and deed. And, with so many terrible object lessons before us, we should have learned that "smart-aleckism" will not win battles.

As a nation, our attitude toward the Orient has been one of haughtiness. Apparently, we have esteemed the nations there so lightly that we have deemed it unnecessary to observe the ordinary amenities in dealing with these peoples "somewhere east of Suez." We could, in consequence, sell scrap iron and oil to Japan for use in her war against China, while at the same time giving material aid to Chiang Kai-shek's government and expressing great horror at Japan's aggression.

II

"I saw the powers of darkness put to flight,
I saw the morning break."

These words form part of a poem appearing on the front cover of a late number of a certain educational journal.³ Obviously, the poet's idea is that the forces of light and the forces of darkness are now engaged in

a climactic struggle from which the former will presently emerge triumphant. Interpretations similar to this are more ancient than Zoroaster. Some, nevertheless, will hold with that Oriental philosopher who writes:

I do not believe in an automatic millennium that is going to blossom out of this spiritual desert. I smell too many corpses around.⁴

The notion that mankind will come out of this dreadful conflict spiritualized and ennobled is fantastic. After this resort to "reeking tube and iron shard"—this Nietzschean apotheosis of the Sword—the conquerors will find it surpassingly difficult to discourse convincingly to the conquered on the beauties of human brotherhood. Still unhealed are the exacerbations occasioned by the sanguinary struggles between Catholic and Protestant in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

To many, however, the highest conception of peace is something in the way of an imitation of the *Pax Romana*. Such may help themselves "to a lusty drag" at the imperialists' peace pipe, and thus "find escape in a dream world where all the pimples on the face of the earth are 'cured' by simply having the world police force of a super-state shoot them off. . . . [Such will] never mind what caused them."⁵ They fail to perceive that persuasions other than military operated as stabilizing factors in the maintenance of the *Pax Romana*.

With reference to this subject the Oriental philosopher previously quoted remarks rather wittily:

The great thing about the teaching of history is that we must teach history, but must not let history teach us.⁶

History should teach us that, for a time, peace may be established "by the power of the mighty compelling the weak. Over the long haul it cannot suffice. Before a durable order can be established, there must be mutual confidence. . . ."⁷

Our Oriental philosopher warns of the impossibility of effective planning for peace when a philosophy of peace is lacking.⁸

But ominously enough, another well-known writer observes:

At present, in the realm of ideas, we are almost completely disarmed.

⁴ Lin Yutang, "Between Tears and Laughter," *Omnibook* (September, 1943), p. 150.

⁵ Morris H. Rubin, "America and the Peace," recent editorial in *The Progressive* (Madison, Wisconsin).

⁶ Lin Yutang, "Between Tears and Laughter," *Omnibook* (September, 1943), p. 150.

⁷ William P. Maddox, *European Plans for World Order*, American Academy of Political and Social Science, March, 1940, p. 7. Also James-Patten-Rowe Pamphlet Series, No. 8.

⁸ Lin Yutang, "Between Tears and Laughter," *Omnibook* (September, 1943), p. 158.

¹ *Life* (January 3, 1944), p. 15.

² *Oregon Journal* (January 7, 1944).

³ *The Journal of the National Education Association* (January, 1944).

And again:

"The Western democratic world is perilously close to a vacuum of faith."⁹

Granting the truth of these observations, it must be conceded that effective planning for peace cannot take place until new attitudes are developed. The importance of developing attitudes and techniques tending toward winning the peace is thus pointed out by one of our most prominent editors:

If we do not select the right method and take first steps first, we are not likely to realize our hopes, even though we win this war.¹⁰

This editor indicates the nature of the necessary procedures in these words:

Any universal system that does not take account of the historic, cultural, and political differences will fail.

III

We have indeed come a long way since that fateful decision was made "to take all measures short of war." Today we are possibly "short" on several scores, but not on war. One of these shortages may be in the field of international diplomacy. Some of our Latin American Good Neighbors, for instance, appear reluctant to accept our leadership in this time of crisis. This fills us with amazement, and, of course, with indignation. Despite the publication of such works as *The United States Against Liberty* by the Mexican historian, Fabela, we have generally presupposed on the part of our American neighbors an acceptance of the concept of hemispheric solidarity under the hegemony of the United States, as embodied in the Monroe Doctrine.

We have believed that those Latin Americans criticizing our national policies adversely were wilfully closing their eyes to the benefits arising from our dealings with Latin America, and that critics of this kind were relatively few. Consequently, when we discover in the countries to the south of us evidences of widespread opposition to our national policies, we are perplexed.

But not for long. We find the answer. Some of our Good Neighbors have fallen under the influence of nazi agents. This question arises, however: Can it be possible that the nazis understand the art of persuasion better than we?

IV

What has just been set forth may call to mind the disconcerting fact that, during the preceding global

paroxysm, Italy and Japan were numbered among our Allies. Now we are trusting that the present Allied Nation alignment will hold while through cooperative effort an arduous task is performed—the task of preparing an undemocratic and warlike world for democracy and peace.

A little more than a quarter of a century ago we announced a very similar program. Neither then, nor at any time since, have we, or our helpers among the nations, possessed the skill or the will requisite for the accomplishment of our stated purposes. Has a psychological mutation taken place so that, suddenly endowed with new capabilities, both we and our Allies may now find it possible to make our deeds square with our slogans?

On the subject of peace one of our noted educators writes hopefully:

The future would indeed be black, if men of intelligence throughout the world could not devise the content and methods which would cultivate the will to peace.

And again:

The fact is . . . that no effort has been made to present the glammers of peace with as much conviction and picturesqueness as the glammers of war.¹¹

This is all very well and considerably to the point. However, there is something more in the situation than the mere matter of "glamour." There is, at least for the shapers of public opinion, the matter of the scientific attitude, of objectivity. Persons of intelligence everywhere must rise intellectually to Comte's positive stage. So long as entire peoples permit themselves to be ruled by emotionalism and remain the gullible victims of chauvinistic propaganda, so long will the goals which we have set remain unattainable, so long will peace be less glamorous than war.

As yet victory is not ours, and many of us are belatedly discovering that we are pitted against very formidable antagonists. This discovery fills us with apprehension mixed with vexation arising from the fact that we should find it so difficult to thwart the purposes of those whom we call our enemies. Motivated by fear and the desire to save face, many among us today might find in these words of Kipling their philosophy of persuasion for those whose nationalistic aims conflict with our own:

You may shin up the trees,

You may go where you please,

But you can't get away from the guns.

Perhaps the Gunga Dins are not so much impressed by such words as formerly. Whenever the

⁹ Geoffrey Crowther, "Freedom and Control," *Foreign Affairs*, XXII (January, 1944), pp. 178, 188.

¹⁰ Henry R. Luce, "Preface to Relations With Britain," *The U. S. in a New World* (Bureau of Special Services, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, 1943).

¹¹ I. L. Kandel, "The Problem of Education for Peace," *Religious Education* (November-December, 1943), p. 350.

horrors of peace tend to counterbalance the horrors of war, those concerned do not invariably choose peace. The existence of a half-starved menial is never glamorous. Ridiculing the low standards of living prevailing in certain enemy countries may be popular among us, but those who take this attitude betray an amazing ignorance of the principles of cause and effect. They are so obtuse as not to recognize here the operation of economic determinism.

Facetiously mentioning the "Sons of Heaven" may satisfy a sense of humor, but such remarks do not demonstrate that degree of objectivity which those should possess who aspire to the psychological leadership of the world. The Son-of-Heaven idea is not confined to Japan, and moreover, we were willing enough to have the cooperation of the Mikado and his subjects in 1917-1918—and after. Then, too, making sport of the physical appearance of the Japanese is not calculated to improve our relations with peoples very similar racially to these same Japanese. It should be remembered that one unit of our army in Italy is Japanese-American.

Nor are the Germans "Huns." So closely related are they to the peoples of Britain and the United

States that the two global conflicts take on many of the aspects of our own great fratricidal strife of the 1860's.

With reason we accuse the Japanese of violating their own code of Bushido. Do we, indeed, adhere to the code of Chivalry? How much of the Christian ethic is evident in our "daily walk and conversation," so that our adversaries may know that our way is more excellent than theirs? What if the verdict of posterity should be that Americans of this generation failed to act even according to the highest standards proclaimed and practiced by certain men of pagan Rome?

We are accustomed to think of ourselves as a most progressive and enlightened people—the model democracy of our time. . . . [Therefore] we ought [now] to consider what kind of responsibility lays upon us.¹²

At any rate, name-calling and nose-thumbing should be left to impudent urchins. So, doubtless, thought Caesar.

¹² Owen Lattimore, *America and Asia* (Claremont, California, 1943), p. 4.

Responsibility in the Bill of Rights

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The Bill of Rights as the very foundation of our democratic system has been woefully neglected in our public schools. Despite this fact, we remain very smug and merely take it for granted that our young people will just naturally acquire a real knowledge of our fundamental liberties without giving them serious thought or study. This is the case, for much has been said in and out of school about democracy but few attempts have been made to define it satisfactorily by showing its vital relationship to the Bill of Rights. The result has often been utter confusion because the reader and listener have been given few clear concepts of democracy and the methods by which it was achieved.

That our public school graduates have little conception of the Bill of Rights as the pivot around which our democracy revolves was demonstrated very clearly by the *New York Times* test in American history.¹ No one who is familiar with our constitutional system will be surprised at this if he takes only enough time to make a cursory examination of

the American history and government texts that are used most commonly in the public schools of the United States. It would soon be clear that all of them are lacking some of the material that would make the Bill of Rights as understandable as its importance demands.²

There can be little excuse for the existence of such a condition. Even those educators who claim that the curriculum is already crowded cannot excuse themselves for not giving thorough attention to this most vital aspect of our constitutional democracy. They cannot maintain successfully that there are any parts of the present social studies program that merit more consideration than the very essence of our democratic government. They cannot deny that the Bill of Rights is the framework upon which our liberties have been built. They cannot justify a school program that does not equip students with a knowledge of what was intended to be the fundamental background of American life.

¹ Of the 7,000 college and university freshmen tested, 55 per cent could not name correctly as many as four of the fifteen specific freedoms of the Bill of Rights.

² For a summary of the information found in twenty texts widely used in the public schools of the United States, see George H. Nelson, "What of the Bill of Rights?" *School and Society*, LIX (February 5, 1944), 92-94.

Such a problem as this cannot be solved by talking about a vaguely defined democracy. The only solution for it will be found when a program which gives careful attention to the Bill of Rights and to its relation to our democratic system has been provided for the child throughout his entire school career.

Little can be done in this direction unless it is preceded by careful planning. Surely, no mere memorizing of the rights of the individual will suffice, although that must come first. The most vital instruction must be concerned with making clear the freedoms of our democratic system. This aim will not have been attained until each individual sees the Bill of Rights in its importance for himself and also for the society of which he is a part.

While the privileges of the individual must be clearly defined in such teaching, the pupil must realize that there are limits to his rights, that the rights of other people begin where his end, and that his duties toward others begin at this place. He needs to understand that he does not make this distinction between rights and duties but that it is determined for all members of our society by the will of that society expressed through the Bill of Rights which is interpreted by the court system of the United States. It becomes his responsibility, then, to know how far he may go in order that he will not trespass upon the precious liberties of others.

To put it somewhat differently, it is the obligation of each to learn to practice restraint or moderation in the pursuit of his rights. The liberty of the individual must never be permitted to become license, for that would mean the trampling underfoot of the sacred rights of others and the eventual destruction of the democratic system which was intended for the enjoyment of all.

The above statements indicate the existence of a problem of the first magnitude—one that can be solved best in our public schools. Children need to learn of their rights and duties during their school careers. They must understand the Bill of Rights and the ideas in it which do so much toward placing the individual and society in their proper relationship toward each other.

Some of these concepts which should be taught much more intensively by our public schools are as follows:

1. Religion may be freely exercised by the individual but must be moral and moderate and not repugnant to the common ideals.
2. Freedom of speech and press are guaranteed to the individual but may not be abused or practised to the degree that the reputations of others will be damaged through false allegations. Nor may they be exercised to the point where the careless use of speech

and press may help the enemy in time of war.

3. The right of the people to assemble shall not be denied provided they do so "peaceably" and thus do not create any disturbance which might be harmful to the public.
4. The right of petitioning the government for a redress of grievances shall be safeguarded but, obviously, petitions in unreasonable quantities cannot all be given careful consideration. If they were, some divisions of the government might conceivably have little time for the performance of their main functions in serving the public.
5. The right "to keep and bear arms" is assured to all of us. It would, however, be very unwise—in fact, dangerous—to take any action which would not permit intelligent regulation of the possession and use of arms in peace or war. The student should be taught to understand that the good of the public has been provided for through the taking of measures which he might otherwise consider an unwarranted interference with his individual liberty.
6. The inviolability of the home and person is an idea that is almost sacred in our society. This must continue to be impressed upon the juvenile mind to the end that all citizens will comprehend it so well that each will be anxious to protect not only his own home and person but the homes and persons of others as well.
7. The individual who wishes to keep intact the idea that he may not be "deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law" should be aware that this freedom can be best preserved if everyone insists that it should benefit all.
8. He who counts among his rights the privilege of a jury trial, if arraigned in court, should also be willing to serve as a juror when called upon. He must realize that the jury system will do its best work when everyone believes that it is his duty to help make it function fairly and efficiently.
9. He who is convinced that all witnesses who might testify in his behalf should be in court, also has a duty. He should be willing to lend his testimony in favor of justice if he has been a witness to actions which result in court cases.

There is here, then, abundant evidence that the Bill of Rights is not a document for the absolute protection of unrestricted personal liberties. In spite of the fact that it exists primarily for the benefit of

the individual, there is much in it that involves the performance of duty by that individual toward society.

While claiming his precious constitutional guarantees, each person must be aware of the effect of his actions upon others. Only thus can the rights of all be preserved to their fullest extent. When all are interested in safeguarding human rights for everyone there can be no reduction of liberty for any.

There is no other rule by which democracy as we know it can survive. The line between society and the individual must be clearly drawn as it is in our Bill of Rights as explained by United States courts. According to this, neither may encroach upon the rights of the other. Each has its particular sphere upon which the other may not intrude. Society may not destroy the rights of the individual and the individual may not invade the rights of society.

Enough evidence surely exists to show that there is great danger for any people who do not observe a proper line of demarcation between individual and group. Dictatorship is the inevitable result of the

destruction of the rights of the former; unrestrained individualism, where a few may profit enormously at the expense of the many, must be expected in case of the contraction of the rights of society as a whole.

This conclusion, then, seems clear. If the democratic system is to continue to operate successfully, our citizenry must understand the proper relationship between the individual and the society of which he is a part. That understanding can be achieved best in the school. There the guarantees of the Bill of Rights and their relationship to society as well as to the individual can be impressed upon everyone from early childhood.

Without such a program as that described here our democratic system may be in great danger, for confusion and misunderstanding may limit its chances of survival. Only a proper understanding of the great issues of democracy can keep it secure. Unless we are willing to make the effort to teach them clearly in our schools, we may be in grave peril of losing our democratic life in the midst of a war fought to preserve it.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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ONLY A CRACKER¹

A wine commemorates the first white child born in the tragic Roanoke colony—Virginia Dare; a dessert honors an opera singer—Peaches Melba; but only a cracker pays tribute to the pioneer health reformer of the early nineteenth century—Sylvester Graham. He not only advocated temperance with regard to liquor, but also in respect to eating both in quantity and quality. He proclaimed over-eating as great a danger to man's salvation as drunkenness. He denounced the lack of personal cleanliness too, as bathing was infrequent in those days. In his time Americans lived on a heavy diet of meat and starches. Festive banquets often lasted many hours, the repast consisting of as many as twenty or thirty different kinds of meats and fish.

He launched a campaign for good health, praising the virtues of whole wheat bread, bathing, sunlight, open windows, fresh air in general, dress reform, sex hygiene and exercise as the path to a sound body and a sound mind. His lecture at the Franklin Insti-

tute in Philadelphia in 1830 led to many more, chiefly in New England and New York, often delivered before audiences of 2,000. In appreciation of his good influence his converts sent him many testimonials some of which he eventually printed in book of about a hundred pages. In 1839 he wrote the *Science of Human Health* based upon physiology. He and his followers were perhaps the first group to advocate instruction in physiology in the public schools.

His disciples lectured on their own behalf. Mary Gove and Pauline Wright spoke before "female audiences" on hygiene and dress reform; they discussed anatomy and physiology, and shocked prudish public opinion. This crusade for women's health soon was joined to the general crusade for women's rights. Boarding houses were established where Graham's ideas could be practiced, such as eating "Graham bread" and bathing in warm water at least three times a week. The utopian Brook Farm had a special table and diet for Grahamites. Weekly papers such as the *Graham Journal* and *Health Journal and Advocate* were published. These supplemented the health journals of the regular physicians such as the *Philadelphia Journal of Health*, edited by Dr.

¹ Richard H. Shryock, "Sylvester Graham and the Popular Health Movement, 1830-1870," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XVIII (September, 1931), 172-183.

Condie. Among Graham's leading disciples was William Alcott of Boston. Graham's health reform movement soon had attached to it an anti-tobacco and anti-corset crusade.

Graham's emphasis upon right living as a preventive of ill health directed reforms against the use of drugs and bleeding. In the forties the reform movement led to the repeal of all laws against "irregular" medical practices in order that anyone could become a "doctor." Graham's ideas made easier the introduction of drugless healing: hydropathy and the use of electricity. Graham along with T. H. Trall and William Alcott wrote voluminously on sex hygiene "telling what a young man should know." His health movement lasted until the seventies.

Graham and his followers introduced the basic principles of good health, increasingly popularized since the 1920's. Doctors trained in scientific methods and aided by scientific inventions and discoveries of the health values of fresh air, sunlight, vitamins and balanced diet have built on his foundations. Surely Graham is deserving of more recognition than that given by a cracker!

THE STAR ROUTE POSTAL FRAUDS²

The vast expanses of the Far West necessarily required special means of communication for the transport of passengers, specie, mail, papers and valuable documents. Stage coaches carried this material over postal roads known as "star routes." By 1880 the total annual mileage covered was considerable. The geography and the psychology of the West invited much fraud in the awarding of government contracts. Over vast spaces inspection was almost impossible; any effort to expose corruption was denounced as an attack on western development. A large majority of these mail routes were controlled by combinations or rings of professional bidders, notably those of Senator Stephen W. Dorsey and his brother, and the Salisbury firm. Routes were awarded, consistent with public policy, to the lowest bidder. However, members of the ring would submit various low and high bids and would default the low ones in turn until the contract at a high rate was awarded to a member of the ring. Contracts were padded under the provision of the law allowing for pro-rata adjustments for increased service and increased speed in transportation. Authority to make such increases above the contract was vested in the Second Assistant Postmaster General.

Various congressional investigations showed that no action was taken to penalize offenders guilty of fraud, and derelict officials were not punished by the

department. Clerks were bribed to enter lower bids; valuable documentary evidence often disappeared. The investigation of the Post Office Department began in the seventies after exposures by Colonel J. C. McKibben in the *Washington Patriot* on January 2, 1872 and by the editorials of A. M. Gibson in the *New York Sun*. The Postmaster, John A. J. Creswell, demanded an investigation by the Congressional Post Office and Post Roads Committee. Other Congressional investigations followed. In 1880 the Department requested a \$2,000,000 deficiency appropriation which Brady, the Second Assistant Postmaster General, told Congress was due to 2,000 new routes created at the insistence of Congressmen who wanted service for their constituents. In April of that year Congress passed a deficiency bill for \$1,100,000.

The public press declared that there had been lobbying by contractors who bribed Congressmen to get the bill passed. The press revealed the existence of rings and the manner in which they worked.

However, with the approach of the 1880 presidential campaign, investigations were temporarily suspended. The Democrats in their campaign made little use of the issue of Republican postal corruption, since some of their own members were involved. Senator Dorsey, secretary of the Republican National Committee, and James A. Garfield as early as July, 1880, exchanged many letters as was natural on the conduct of party affairs, but especially on Dorsey's part in an effort to find out what might be the composition of Garfield's cabinet if he was elected President. The press applauded the appointment of Thomas James as Postmaster General, while the "star route" papers attacked it. Dorsey also opposed the appointment of Wayne MacVeagh, a "reformer," as Attorney General.

On March 9, 1881, Garfield instructed Postmaster General James to institute needed reforms of the system and to hand over to the Department of Justice any persons guilty of corruption or fraud. On April 19, 1881, Garfield removed Brady. Dorsey threatened that if reform went too far he would reveal how Indiana was carried by the "star routers" for Garfield. Up until his assassination, Garfield was much concerned with "star route" frauds and the lethargic attitude of government agents, as his diary clearly indicates. When Arthur became President he refused to see Dorsey and ordered a series of removals. On March 4, 1882, the Grand Jury at the Capital presented indictments against the leading offenders including Dorsey and Brady. They were charged with conspiracy to defraud the government on nineteen routes, the pay on which had been increased from \$41,135 to \$448,670.90, while the revenue had amounted to only \$11,622.36.

The government encountered much difficulty in

²J. Martin Klotzche, "The Star Route Cases," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXII (December, 1935), 407-418.

its prosecution. Disagreements among government counsel lessened its prestige. A. M. Gibson, appointed as Special Assistant Attorney General, was disclosed as having received \$2,500 from J. W. Bosler, a "star route" contractor, and was therefore removed. Washington papers were hostile to the trials. Defective laws of the District forced the government to accept conspiracy as the only charge it could bring against the defendants. One hundred and fifteen witnesses, chiefly special agents, postmasters and sub-contractors from the West, were examined and three thousand exhibits were submitted as evidence. Judge Wylie's charge to the jury bore heavily against the defense at every point but only two, Miner and Rerdell, were declared guilty, while two were acquitted and the others were absolved by disagreement of the jury. Judge Wylie set aside the verdict because of its "general unreasonableness," and ordered a new trial. The second trial, begun December 1, 1882, ended on June 14, 1883, in the acquittal of all the accused, though two previously had been convicted, one of whom had pled guilty

during the trial. This was strange as the evidence was more complete and the judge's charge was more severe than in the first trial.

Many local trials were held throughout the United States; those tried at Nebraska, February 1882, where all were acquitted, were typical. Twenty-four civil suits were instituted by the government but most were eventually dismissed (one as late as 1922). Only two persons, in all the trials, Price and McDevitt, were convicted in September, 1882, on a charge of conspiracy to defraud the government on bogus contracts. Eight persons were arrested for jury bribing, but only one was brought to trial. The cases were dropped under Cleveland.

The net result of all this investigation and prosecution, however, was a more honest and efficient administration, not only of the "star route" service, but of the Post Office as a whole. By 1883 the cost of the "star route" service had been decreased \$2,500,000 while in 1882 the receipts of the Post Office exceeded expenditures for the first time since 1865.

Maps Today

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Maps can spell victory or defeat. In the very first struggle of the United States for liberty—the Revolutionary War—the value of the map was vividly brought forth when a superior French fleet, after blockading the British ships off Sandy Hook, was forced to remain at a standstill because of a lack of accurate charts indicating deep channels.

Today, before any new movement takes place, map-makers lay out every step of the way. More than 1,500 researchers, filing clerks, draftsmen, artists, geographers, laborers, and printers, are working twenty-four hours a day producing an average of four million maps and charts a month, ranging from target charts to drawings of entire countries. These map-makers in many cases have little to guide them, often using tourist guides, journals of travelers and missionaries, notes of Army and oil company engineers, and sketches of geography professors as their sole sources of information.

Add to these map-makers working at home, the men of the various services turning out maps in battle areas and you have a bird's-eye view of what it means to map a "global war." And because this is "global war," maps have changed with the change in the type of warfare. Many of the old style maps

are being discarded while new maps are taking their place.

No map, regardless of what type it is, can give an entirely truthful picture of the earth's surface. When one translates a three dimensional sphere upon the two dimensional plane of a map there is bound to be some distortion. By using a mathematical formula in projection, the distortion is controlled, and accuracy is obtained in some areas, at the expense, however, of accuracy in other areas.

Maps are true throughout, at most, in one or two of the following ways: (1) conformality (the angle lying between two intersecting curves on the map is the same as the angle between the curves on the sphere); (2) every straight line on a map represents a great circle, which is the shortest distance between two points; (3) every straight line represents a rhumb line (a curve on the earth which makes the same angle with each meridian it crosses); (4) areas on the map measure correctly all areas on the earth; and (5) distances on the earth can be derived from distances on the map. Accordingly, the use and value of a map depend upon which features it possesses and to what degree of accuracy it possesses these features.

Most of us have become familiar with the Mercator map through school textbooks and are today using this map of the world to follow the war. The Mercator map is made by placing an imaginary cylinder tangent to the earth at a parallel of latitude, usually the equator, and by projecting the grid and geographical features either in accordance with a mathematical formula or from a convenient point. (See Figure I.)

The Mercator map is correct only near the parallel of tangency and is therefore best for equatorial areas. This map gives accurate directions and fair shapes but distorts distances and areas. Since it gives accurate directions it has been used chiefly for water navigation purposes. In planning voyages, the natural thing to do is to sail a straight compass or rhumb line course. However, the rhumb line is usually not the shortest distance between two points, and therefore some means of fitting a great circle to a rhumb line course is needed.

Navigators solve this problem by first finding the great circle route on a map, such as the gnomonic, on which straight lines represent great circles on the

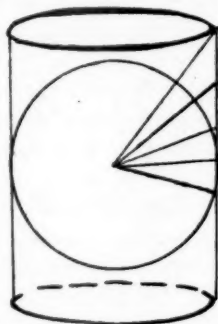


FIGURE I

earth's surface, and then transferring this great circle course to the Mercator by a series of rhumb lines of corresponding latitude and longitude. In steering this course the navigator must reset his compass on each new rhumb chord of the series.

The Mercator, being the only projection which represents a rhumb line on the earth by a straight line gives the least complicated and easiest way of setting the course for a water voyage. On the other hand, the Mercator is useless to the air navigator because its distortion is greatest at the poles of the earth which have lately become centers of the airpower world. To see this distortion consider Greenland which lies in the area of the shortest air routes between major centers and thus in the midst of the airpower world. On a Mercator map it looks as large as South America, a continent nine times the size of Greenland. For this reason other maps are replacing the Mercator in the representation of the polar regions.

The Lambert Conformal Conic map is widely used today, the Civil Aeronautics Administration being one of its strongest proponents. This map avoids distortion of shape as much as possible and is of great value to air navigators by enabling them to locate land marks easily. A cone is placed over the sphere cutting it at parallel of latitude forty-five degrees north and coming out of the sphere at parallel thirty-three degrees north as has been set by the United

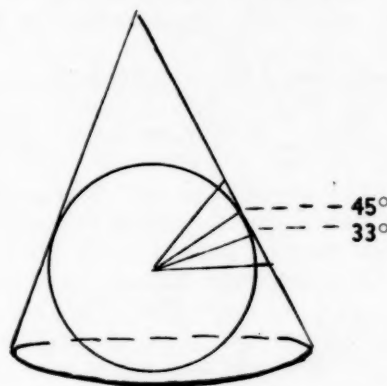


FIGURE II

States Coast and Geodetic Survey. (See Figure II.)

Radii are then drawn from the center of the sphere according to a mathematical formula, projecting the sphere on the cone. When the cone is cut and flattened out, it gives a map possessing straight lines as meridians, besides three valuable features. These features are true representative shapes of earth areas, true angles at every point except the pole, and straight lines as great circle distances, excepting those lines at the upper and lower extremities, running due east or west. The main disadvantage of the Lambert Conformal map is that it is not accurate for planes going north and south except for short distances.

Another conic map, based on the same principle as the Lambert, is in many ways replacing the Lambert, being practical for areas of great north and south extent with limited east and west extent. This map, known as the polyconic, consists of flattened cones of maps of each parallel of latitude, piled upon each other. The United States Coast and Geodetic Survey and the United States Army use the polyconic projection. The polyconic map possesses to some degree all the aforementioned features.

Upon the polyconic projection, also, the United States grid system is based. This grid system, introduced by the French in World War I, consists in projecting a map on a ruled screen, similar to a graph, giving x and y coordinates to each point of the earth represented on the map. If the grid coordinates of two points are known, an approxima-

tion of the distance between the two points can easily be computed by the Pythagorean theorem, while angles may be obtained through trigonometry. These simple methods of deducing distances and angles are not accurate enough for great distances but are very valuable in cases where small distances are concerned, such as in directing artillery fire. For the above reason all unmapped war zones of today are being represented only by those maps upon which a grid system may be superimposed.

Another projection, the azimuthal, is becoming increasingly popular with air navigators. It is made by projecting the globe on a plane tangent at the desired point. The parallels of latitude are marked at equal distances as they are on the sphere and land marks are then laid off on them. On this map any line drawn from the center is a great circle and when the plane is laid tangent at the pole an equidistant polar map is obtained which gives accurate distances from the center to any point. The main disadvantage of this map is that distortion increases geometrically from the point of projection until shapes at the edge of the map appear unrecognizable.

On the battle fields, aerial photographs have become all important in the mapping of unplotted areas. The modern means of warfare, employing quick spearhead attacks, leaves little time for field work or even for the sketching of maps. In making an aerial photo map, a plane photographs the area in strips, usually between ten in the morning and three in the afternoon. Each strip has a 35 per cent overlap, and each picture in the strip a 60 per cent overlap; consequently all parts of the area flown appear on four different exposures. These pictures are then assembled by cartographers by the slotted templet, or some similar, method.

The differences in the various methods lies in the way they take a definite point in one exposure and line it up with the same point in the three other exposures, continuing working in this manner through all the exposures, until a composite whole is formed, called a mosaic. In making a map the cartographer finds the scale of the picture from the focal length of the camera and the height of the plane as given on the back of the picture. In taking the picture the pilot located definite control stations, the latitude and longitude of which are known; these are then marked by the cartographer on a grid and from these control stations the various places on the aerial photo are located.

The army, however, frequently cannot wait for a detailed map to be made and so instead just superimposes a grid upon a mosaic. This resultant photo map is often used as a map substitute. It is easy to take, develop, and reproduce, while at the same time it gives an actual picture of the desired area.

The military map, the sole guide to our fighting men in strange and hostile lands, is constantly being

improved in order to bring victory quicker. Today's military map indicates railroads, telegraph lines, lighthouses, schools, and pathways, besides the general contour of the land and the depths of rivers and harbors.

Before the African campaign, new light-up maps of fluorescent inks, which shine under an ultra violet light in a darkened room, were developed. Experimentation with different types of paper is going on in order to find a waterproof parchment, which will be stronger than those now used, and which will allow the wiping away of grease and other smudges. This research to improve our maps is constantly taking place in order to keep pace with modern developments in armaments.

The mapping of the war has become an exact business which demands the untiring labor of experts. With the prominence of the airplane a new era in the history of map-making has been opened, which has resulted in a new and revolutionary concept of the world in which we live. No longer are the regions of the north pole considered worthless wastelands, but rather they are sought after as future centers of the post-war aerial world.

The many discoveries of researchers, while mapping the present war, will be of inimitable aid in establishing airline systems in the future. The modern map, giving prominence to north pole territories, definitely brings out the fact that this is after all "one world."

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Racial Minorities in Wartime

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Any study of the background of the present world situation from either the political or social point of view leads directly or indirectly to serious consideration of the part which has been played and is being played by minority groups. While World War II does not have its real roots in the problems of minority peoples, German propagandists to the contrary, the leading role played by minorities in this international drama does raise questions concerning the racial minorities present in the United States, and their relationship to the war.

The racial minorities with which we shall deal here are the Chinese, the Japanese, the Filipino, and the Negro. Each of them is being affected by the war, and each is having an effect on the conduct of the war. These groups make up one-tenth of our total population, and in an all-out war, that is a large fraction. They are not only scattered throughout the nation, but also exist in relatively compact groups, particularly in the Far West and the South. Furthermore, the treatment of minorities is one index by which the degree of our democracy may be evaluated, and our democracy is an important criterion by which our nation is being judged by other nations.

The 129,000 Japanese in this country have been more directly affected by the war than any other one of these groups. The ethics of the situation need not concern us here; whether or not what occurred had to occur in the way it did occur—that is another problem. What concerns us now is the present and future result of already accomplished events. Approximately seven-eighths of the Japanese in America, some two-thirds of them American-born, lived on the West Coast.

Within three months after Pearl Harbor the process had begun by which over one hundred thousand persons were transported to the ten great evacuation and relocation centers established in the Rocky Mountain and Mid-West areas. This tremendous task of evacuation was accomplished in about four months, and a relocation project which involves so many persons and such a short period of time is unlikely to be satisfactory to all concerned. The housing, social conditions, morale, and labor conditions are far from desirable.

The net result is that we almost inevitably shall have, by the end of the war, a group of nearly 100,000 persons who are, to say the least, dissatisfied with the treatment they have received at the hands of the government of the nation in which they live.

The recent relocation riots are a case in point. Although it is yet too early for measurement, we know that such experiences tend inevitably toward personal and social disorganization.

More concretely, here are some tens of thousands of able and willing workers who are unemployed or inefficiently employed. They are being fed and housed chiefly at government expense when government expenditures are unbelievably high; and a considerable number of soldier and civilian administrators are kept from other activities which would more directly aid the war effort.

The 78,000 Chinese and 45,000 Filipinos in the United States present no particular war problem. The friendliness and even admiration which has recently arisen on the part of the American public for the natives of China and the Philippines has had some small effect on the treatment of these minorities, but almost two-thirds of the Chinese and over two-thirds of the Filipinos live on the West Coast, where prejudice was already strong, and consequently the tangible gains of these two groups have been considerably less than might at first be supposed.

Certainly, the repeal of the Chinese Exclusion Act and the placing of Chinese on the immigration quota has been a salve for one racial sore spot; not enough Chinese (105 a year) can be admitted to change the present population situation. The Chinese in particular have been wholeheartedly behind the war, and probably have exceeded their fair share in the war effort. Neither group has had to suffer the disorganizing division of loyalties such as has been the lot of so many American-born Japanese. If anything, assimilation to the American culture group has proceeded at an even greater rate than before, and the future seems to show fewer rather than more racial problems for these two minorities.

With a population fifty times as great as these other racial minorities combined, the Negro presents tremendously greater possibilities for good or evil, progress or reaction. The Negro's effect on the war effort, the effect of the war upon the Negro and the results of the war period on our future social organization are involved in his battle for equality. Our almost 13,000,000 Negroes have a heritage of suppression and discrimination against which they are constantly and actively striving. They have been alert to turn to their advantage any situations which might bring a decrease in discrimination, and over the past two decades have gradually become more and more militant.

When it became apparent that Negroes were largely to be ignored in the national defense program, the president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, A. Phillip Randolph, organized a Negro March-on-Washington. After negotiations between the administration and Randolph, there was issued the executive order forbidding contractors handling government orders to discriminate against workers because of race, creed, color, or national origin, and the March-on-Washington was called off. Since then, Negroes have made considerable progress in industry, but have been held back by discrimination on the part of unions and failure of industries to include them in training programs.

The Negro feels keenly that only token improvements have been made in the caste system as practiced by the armed forces. Comments by the Negro press and magazines carry too frequent references to the "white man's war" and the "Jim Crow Army." Because of the good record made by Negro fighting units in World War I, the Negro wants to do more than work in labor and engineering battalions. His patriotism is unquestioned, for he has no other nation and no other loyalty, but he is not furnishing his full quota of volunteers and draftees.

Large numbers of Negroes have been kept illiterate and now are unable to assume their rightful place in what should be a democratic army. Both Negroes and whites feel this inequality. After Pearl Harbor, Negro newspapers toned down their demands, and while thoroughly supporting the war effort, they are carrying on a vigorous fight for democracy and equality for the Negro right now. Yet the difference between the theory of all-out war and the practice of segregation and discrimination make good copy, and such things as segregating Negro blood plasma receive plenty of publicity.

Despite the inequalities which obviously still exist, one may observe many tendencies to relax the caste restrictions upon Negroes. Colored persons hold more white-collar positions than ever before, Negro motormen and conductors are beginning to be employed in large Northern cities; skilled jobs are now open which never have been open before

and which probably will not again be closed. White newspapers in border states are beginning to print news items concerning Negroes, and some are even referring to upper-class Negro women as "Mrs."

Yet even liberal Southern newspapers warn the Negroes against attempting to break down racial segregation. Three important race riots have occurred, and armed clashes in army camps in four states have resulted in the killing of Negro soldiers. The system of Negro political serfdom has been attacked, but yet stands firm upon the fears of Southern politicians. Negro migration to northern cities has caused over-crowding of segregated areas with a consequent overflow into white areas, and a resulting ill-feeling which increases each month.

While liberalism and white reaction are both increasing apace; Negroes like their new-found freedoms, but each freedom they achieve brings into focus new discriminations which now seem just as irking and binding as the old, and each new success brings the Negro a hope of further successes.

The best indices of Negro-white relations are, first, a group of rights and perquisites, discriminations and differentials in overt behavior, which may be listed and are measured largely by quantity; and, second, antagonistic racial attitudes which are measured chiefly by degree. Unfortunately, a change or even decrease in the former does not necessarily bring a decline in the latter. This is the situation during World War II. Widespread changes of various types are occurring in the overt relations between races, and it appears that at present the racial structure of our society is being attacked under conditions which make it difficult to defend.

On the other hand, what has managed to exist and even flourish during a three hundred year period will not disappear immediately. There are numerous indices that racial opposition is not decreasing and that many Southern white people are determined to maintain the traditional race etiquette and symbols, and each new gain by the Negro means increased race antagonism. While the aspects of our racial problems are changing, they undoubtedly will remain disorganizing forces for many decades to come.

General Dwight D. Eisenhower

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General Dwight D. Eisenhower can perhaps best be described by a story told about him during the recent and successful Allied North African campaign against the Axis. It seems that an important midnight

conference was in progress at the General's headquarters and a young soldier was diligently placing calls through to Cairo, Oran, London, Dakar, Washington, and other key points. Finally at two o'clock

a lull in the long distance phoning permitted the soldier to catch some sleep. He awoke about an hour later to find the switchboard going full blast. Its new operator was General "Ike" Eisenhower himself.

Eisenhower's phenomenal rise to the rank of a four star general and his selection as leader of the American Expeditionary Forces has been rapid, and has been accelerated by his energy, determination, and wisdom. Four years ago, Eisenhower was practically an unknown man in the American military machine. The Louisiana maneuvers of 1941 where he "out-generaled" Lieutenant General Ben Lear started him on his way to fame.

His understanding of human nature, his knowledge of the technical equipment of the army, and his wisdom and foresight have materially contributed to his rapid climb through the ranks. One of his major attributes is to keep the enemy guessing. Prior to the invasion of North Africa in November 1942 several of the units of Eisenhower's army were equipped with arctic clothes. The story soon spread that Norway was the immediate objective of Allied forces massing in England, and German agents frantically hastened to inform Berlin to strengthen their Norwegian garrisons.

In the case of Dwight Eisenhower whose name shall be honored for his meritorious service to the nation in World War II, the Army's gain was the Navy's loss. "Ike," as he is now known throughout the world, was refused admittance to Annapolis in 1911 because of his age and subsequently he went to West Point, graduating with the class of 1915.

Eisenhower's early life was not unusual, and his family had no military background. He was born on October 14, 1890 in Tyler, Texas, and spent most of his early life in Abilene, Kansas. Son of David J. and Ida Elizabeth (Stover) Eisenhower, Ike was the third of six sons. His father, David Eisenhower, who died in 1941 was associated for many years with the United Telephone Company, now the Southwestern Bell Telephone Company.

Growing up on the plains of the mid-west gave young Eisenhower a strong physique, and after entering West Point in 1911 he played football and also took part in gymnastics and fencing. Academically, Eisenhower stood in the top third of his class consistently, and upon graduation in 1915 received his commission as second lieutenant of infantry.

His first assignment was with the Nineteenth Infantry which he joined in September 1915. During the following two years, Eisenhower was promoted to first lieutenant and to captain and served with the Fifty-seventh Infantry and as an R.O.T.C. instructor, Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia. During World War I, the infantryman foresaw the possibilities of tank warfare, and at his own request was assigned to the tank corps training center at Camp Colt,

Pennsylvania.

Always an industrious worker and student of warfare, Eisenhower rapidly assimilated the techniques of tank fighting and was not only placed in command of the training center, but was awarded the Distinguished Service Medal for his "marked administrative ability in the organization, training, and preparation for overseas service of the technical troops of the Tank Corps."

At the conclusion of the First World War, Dwight Eisenhower who had reached the temporary rank of lieutenant colonel, reverted to his permanent rank of captain and began a series of assignments which took him to various posts in the United States and in the Panama Canal Zone from 1920 to 1933.

After serving in the office of the Chief of Staff in Washington from 1933 to September 1935, he left for the Philippine Islands to serve as an assistant military advisor. While on duty in the Islands, Eisenhower studied aviation and became an accomplished flier with more than 300 hours to his credit.

He received his flying license at forty-eight, at an age when most fliers have retired from the profession. Lack of inter-island transportation in the Philippines and the time saving element of aviation undoubtedly prompted the colonel to take instruction in aviation.

Eisenhower once described the sensation of flying as: "There's exaltation being up there in the blue all by yourself. No muddy roads, no detours, no signs. If you want to take a look at something, you dive down and look at it. If you don't like it, you soar up and find something else. You can do any damned thing you like."

In 1940 Eisenhower returned to the states and was assigned to the Fifteenth Infantry at Fort Ord, California, was transferred to the Third Division, to the Ninth Army Corps, and finally to the duty of chief of staff of the 3rd Army with headquarters in San Antonio, Texas.

Promoted to brigadier general on September 29, 1941, Eisenhower established his reputation the same fall as a strategist during the Louisiana maneuvers. Several months later, he was in London as a lieutenant general preparing for the invasion of North Africa.

In London, when he was shaping the genesis of his present command, Eisenhower's greatest achievement was a diplomatic one. As Allied commander of the European Theater at a time when the United States had not contributed heavily in the fighting, he took precedence over the British who came to like his warm qualities.

This feat was achieved by example, praise, cajolery, and compulsion. He demanded that British, American, and French officers and men get along together. In England and in the Mediterranean,

forces of the three nations worked, ate, and fought together to an extent and in a fashion never dreamed of in World War I.

In England, while secretly preparing for the invasion of North Africa, Eisenhower employed all types of ruses to confuse the enemy and its development of counter strategy. He eliminated the usual routine by calling staff meetings on Sunday and abolished the eight hour day for officers. When confronted with poor paper work, the general used psychology rather than reprimand to obtain clarification or correction. In a tight situation, Eisenhower would sigh gloomily and add "I'm too thick-headed to understand this darn thing. You'll have to make it simpler."

On November 7, 1943 forces of Great Britain and the United States, fighting as one group, stormed ashore at several points on the Mediterranean and Atlantic coasts of French North Africa. At some points, fierce resistance was encountered, at other places French troops offered only token resistance and then laid down their arms. The occupation of Morocco and Algiers was completed rapidly and the invasion soon joined the British Eighth Army advancing from Egypt toward their rendezvous with destiny in Tunisia.

During the North African fighting, General Eisenhower constantly went to the front and frequently traveled about Algiers in a Flying Fortress despite the frantic protests of members of his staff.

His recognition of Admiral Darlan, while causing a wave of protest from various quarters undoubtedly saved thousands of casualties and was in the light of military expediency justified. Following Darlan's assassination, Eisenhower proved his ability to wield disunited units into a compact group, and only by diplomacy and tact did he prevent a serious breach in Allied unity.

In Tunisia, Eisenhower, ably assisted by Montgomery, Patton, and Alexander broke the myth of German invincibility wide open and routed the Axis divisions by a sustained attack that at the end caused thousands of Germans to surrender without a fight.

The conquest of Pantelleria and Sicily rapidly followed. Pantelleria surrendered when unable to withstand the terrific bombardment of the Allied North African Air Force. In Sicily, the Italians with some German support resisted strongly at first, but with strong, unrelenting pressure from the British Eighth and American Seventh Armies retreated to the Italian mainland.

Pausing momentarily to refresh his forces and to receive supplies and equipment, the Texan-born general readied himself for the storming of the Fortress Europe. By mid-August 1943 there were indications that all was not well with the Italians.

Representatives of the Italian government and army began to appear in Lisbon, Madrid, and even at General Eisenhower's headquarters in North Africa.

Events happened rapidly. The storm broke abruptly. At 6:30 p.m. on September 8, 1943, General Eisenhower announced: "The Italian Government has surrendered its armed forces unconditionally. . . . I have granted a military armistice, the terms of which have been approved by the Governments of the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. . . . The armistice . . . becomes effective this instant."

Exactly an hour later, Premier Marshal Pietro Badoglio, speaking for the Italian Government stated: "The Italian Government . . . with the object of avoiding further and more grievous harm to the nation, has requested an armistice from General Eisenhower. . . . This request has been granted. The Italian forces will therefore cease all acts of hostility against the Anglo-U.S. forces. . . . They will, however, oppose attack from any other quarter."

The surrender of Italy, diplomatically important and less so militarily, did not end hostilities in the country. The Germans, conserving their strength as the Italian-German forces retreated through Sicily and the "toe and heel" of the Italian mainland, threw up strong defensive positions south of Rome.

With a third of the Italian mainland in Allied hands and the Fortress Europe successfully invaded, Eisenhower and his able assistant and commander of the British Eighth Army, General Bernard Montgomery were transferred to England.

The conquest of Italy on September 8, 1943 ended the Rome-Berlin axis, a partnership which had existed for six years and ten months. For Italy's 45,000,000 people and Vittorio Emanuele III the road was paved for national redemption and honor.

During the twenty-nine years since his graduation from West Point, "Ike" Eisenhower has always shown a marked capacity for getting ahead. At fifty-three, he is the youngest four-star general in the American Army.

During his two years abroad, Eisenhower has made several trips to the states, and invariably spends his few leisure moments with his wife, Mamie Geneva Doud, whom he married in 1916. The Eisenhowers have one son, John Sheldon Doud, who is a member of the West Point class of 1944.

The war has weighed heavily on Eisenhower's shoulders, for he is charged with one of history's most important military assignments and the destiny of millions of men. It has not however destroyed his sense of humor nor his desire to resume at the conclusion of hostilities the bridge and poker games he so thoroughly enjoyed.

The duties, responsibilities, and successes have not

however changed Eisenhower's desire to lead a quiet, unpretentious life. That fact can best be driven home by the telegram which the General recently sent when "Eisenhower Day" was celebrated at Abilene, Kansas, his home town. It read: "If the home folks

try to high-hat me and call me by titles instead of Dwight, I will feel I am a stranger. The worst part of high military rank is the loneliness that prevents comradeship. I wish I could be home and gather at the café with my friends."

The Early Quakers

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The Society of Friends was founded in England by George Fox about 1650. Its members were originally called Quakers in derision. It is distinguished from other Christian bodies by the special stress laid on immediate teaching and guidance of the Holy Spirit and the belief that no one should be paid or appointed by human authority for the exercise of the gift of ministry.

If we direct our attention to a brief consideration of George Fox, we may be able to understand how this religious organization of Friends began. George Fox was born in Drayton in Leicestershire, England, in July, 1624. His father was a weaver and by the strict honesty of his conduct had won from his neighbors the sobriquet of "Righteous Christer." George, while still a boy was distinguished by his gravity and exemplary conduct. When in the twentieth year of his age, he received what he regarded as the voice of God, directing him to Christ as alone able "to speak to his condition." Very soon after this he began his public ministrations.

From the first, his preaching seemed to make many converts and excited much opposition. Within ten years of Fox's first appearance as a preacher, meetings of the Friends were established in most parts of England. At the same time, so actively were they persecuted that for many years there were seldom less than a thousand of them in prison. The act empowering magistrates to tender the oaths of allegiance and supremacy to any person whom they thought fit to suspect, also operated with great severity against the Friends. Under its provisions, Fox was committed to prison at Lancaster in the beginning of 1664. He was then removed to Scarborough Castle, where he remained until the autumn of 1666.

In 1670 Fox witnessed the passing of the most stringent of Conventicle Acts, forbidding under heavy penalty the assembling for religious worship in any house of more than four persons beside the family, except according to the usages of the Church of England. Fox exhorted his friends to firmness and himself remained in London to share with their sufferings. Soon after his recovery from a severe illness, he

sailed for Barbados where he exerted himself greatly in the interests of religion and humanity. It was while on this island that Fox drew up a statement of his own and his friends' belief in all the great doctrines of Christianity—a statement clearly disproving their alleged sympathy with Socinian tenets. After a considerable time spent in Barbados, Jamaica and the North American continent, he returned to England in 1673. Here further persecutions awaited him. He underwent fourteen months of imprisonment and was at length liberated by the Court of King's Bench on account of errors in his indictment.

In 1677, in company with William Penn who had joined the Society ten years earlier, he paid a visit to Holland and parts of Germany where his services seem to have been well received. The last fifteen years of his life were tranquil in regard to personal molestation but he continued to be actively engaged in various ways in promoting the welfare of his brethren. Their persecutions continued throughout the reign of Charles II. It was not until the first year of the reign of William and Mary that a bill was passed which nullified the Conventicle Acts. It also allowed the Friends to make a solemn declaration in lieu of taking the oaths. George Fox had the gratification of seeing the public worship of the Society legally recognized before his death. He died in London in January of the year 1690.

William Penn was one of Fox's followers. Penn first came in contact with the Society while a student at Oxford. Members of the despised and persecuted sect of Quakers were greatly elated when William Penn, the talented young son of Admiral Penn, became an open convert to their religious views. Penn took so prominent a part in their demonstrations that he was expelled from Oxford. At first Admiral Penn stormed at his son but later forgave him and Penn became the most prominent Quaker in England. In Penn's book entitled, *Rise and Progress of the People Called Quakers* he writes much about George Fox. This material seems to explain in an even more satisfactory way the manner in which Fox began his Society.

Penn writes of Fox's personal qualities. He was

endued with a clear and wonderful depth; a discerner of others' spirits, and very much a master of his own. He had an extraordinary gift in the opening of the Scriptures. He would go to the marrow of things, and show the mind, harmony and fulfilling of them with much plainness, and to great comfort and edification. But above all, he excelled in prayer. He was of an innocent life, no busybody, nor self-seeker; neither touching nor critical. He was an incessant laborer. Penn says that as he lived, so he died; feeling the same eternal power that had raised and preserved him, in his last moments; full of assurance that he had triumphed over death. From this writing of Penn we can easily understand why he felt that he should follow Fox. It is rarely that anyone has so much praise for another.

By the age of thirty-six, Penn was himself a preacher of Quakerism. Popular at court, he inherited the friendship of Charles the Second and his heir, the Duke of York. The Stuart family gave him a tract of land as a just payment for the debt owed to his father who had died before it could be paid. Penn received his charter in 1681. The grant was for an extensive tract of land lying west of the Delaware River and north of Maryland in the American plantations. In the royal patent it was called Pennsylvania. This territory Penn resolved to form into a commonwealth based upon perfect religious toleration, and according set sail, arriving in the Delaware Bay on October 27, 1682. He soon entered into a league with the Indians, and established the city of Philadelphia.

Now that we have noted how the Society of Friends began with the preachings of George Fox, and how William Penn became so ardent a follower that he wished to found a colony for them in the New World, let us look at the fundamental beliefs and doctrines of this group. They held their meetings without any prearranged service or sermon and sometimes in total silence. They believed that the Sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper were to be taken spiritually and not in any outward form.

William Penn states in his *Rise and Progress of the People Called Quakers* that the fundamental principle of the Quaker belief, which is the corner-stone of their fabric, is that: "The Light of Christ within is God's gift for man's salvation." This is as the root of the goodly tree of doctrines that grew and branched out from it. Three other branches are: First, repentance from dead works to serve the living God; which comprehends three operations; a sight of sin, a sense and godly sorrow for it, and an amendment for the time to come. Secondly, perfection from sin, according to the Scriptures of Truth. Thirdly, an acknowledgment of eternal rewards and punishments.

Besides these general doctrines, as the larger branches, there sprang forth several particular doc-

trines that further explain the general doctrine. They are: (1) Communion with one another. (2) Loving one's enemies. (3) The sufficiency of speaking the truth. (4) Not fighting, but suffering. (5) Refusal to support a "national ministry." In addition, the early Quakers refused to respect any persons above others. They used the plain language of "thee" and "thou" to a single person, whatever was his degree among men. They recommended silence by their example, having very few words upon all occasions. They forbore drinking to people because it was not only unnecessary but evil in its tendencies. Their way of marriage was peculiar to them and shows a distinguishing care above other societies professing Christianity. Even today the Friends believe that marriage is an ordinance of God, and that God only can rightly join man and woman in marriage; therefore they use neither priest nor magistrate, but the man and woman concerned take each other as husband and wife in the presence of witnesses.

The Society early recognized that there were among its members different degrees of spiritual growth and religious experience, and that those whose lives had long been dedicated to the obedient service of the Lord might nurture the growth of those younger in his service. In their engagement to meet together for the worship of God in spirit according to the direction of the Holy Lawgiver, they were also exercised to have a tender care over each other, that all might be preserved in unity of faith and practice. To this end therefore, and as an exterior hedge of preservation against the many temptations and dangers to which the world exposes one, advices have been issued and rules adopted from time to time by the Society. They found their inception in the impressions made upon concerned minds and having been submitted individually or through subordinate meetings to the judgment of the Yearly Meeting, they were adopted and issued by that body. Collections of these Rules and Advices, in manuscript, were formed by the Yearly Meeting as early as 1704, again in 1719, and at different times later, notably in 1762. In 1797 the compilation was issued in print. The book was added to and changed at various times. In 1892 it was concluded to revise the whole, and the revision having been adopted by the Yearly Meeting in 1894, it with alterations made in 1910 and 1913, now forms the Book of Discipline.

The first Yearly Meeting for the provinces of Pennsylvania and New Jersey was held at Burlington, in New Jersey, the thirty-first day of the Sixth month, 1681. There have been many changes in the time and the place of meeting but in the year 1883 it was agreed that it should be held the Second-day following the second First-day in the Fifth month in Philadelphia and this decision has been unchanged to the present.

In the book entitled, *Rules of Discipline and Ad-*

vices, there is this to be said concerning meetings for worship:

From the rise of our Religious Society, meetings for worship have been held. As the attendance of them is an expression of our allegiance to our Heavenly Father, and a means afforded for the renewal of our spiritual strength, we exhort all to a Christian zeal and exercise in the performance of this reasonable service. As we are not capable of performing Divine worship in our own strength, we recommend a reverent waiting upon God in true silence, and retirement of mind, for a renewed sense of the inward power of his Spirit, whereby we are qualified to worship Him in an acceptable manner. Let our faithfulness and sincerity herein appear by the humility, meekness, and circumspection of our lives and conversation, exemplifying the principles of Truth as they were declared by Jesus and his disciples; and we earnestly advise that the children and youth of our Society be trained in a knowledge of this important duty, and encouraged to assemble regularly at the times appointed for religious worship.

An exhortation of the Yearly Meeting of 1694 stated:

Dear Friends, keep your meetings in the authority, wisdom, and power of Truth, and unity of the blessed Spirit, and endeavor to keep out of all contention, personal reflection, heat and passions. Let all be done in meekness, and the God of peace be with you.

This book, the title of which has already been mentioned, outlines fully the meetings for discipline, the representative committee, the duties of the Ministers and the Elders, and the duties of the Overseers. It also discusses membership in the Society, birth-right membership and applied membership. There

is an article on plainness which encourages simplicity in all things. Immoderation in lawful things is to be avoided even though they seem innocent in themselves. Friends are exhorted to adhere faithfully to the ancient testimony against wars and fighting, and in no way to unite with any warlike measures, either offensive or defensive. There is a caution against secret societies, gaming and diversions and a guide for conduct and conversations. All sorts of everyday activities are mentioned and in all cases a proper mode of conduct is given. Finally, there is a description of their service for burial and marriage.

The Society of Friends has added much to the world as it is today. For instance, in the province of Pennsylvania the Quaker government in almost a century fulfilled many of its ideals. An affirmation instead of an oath became the law. It succeeded in establishing religious liberty. The Quakers participated in many reforms. They were leaders in prison reform and in the abolition of slavery. They were interested in public and private charities. Original research in science flourished and the principles of education were laid.

In the field of prison reform, Elizabeth Fry, an Englishwoman, spent much of her life ministering to unfortunates in prison. A similar work was done in the United States by a group of Philadelphia Quakers who began agitating for prison reform immediately at the close of the Revolutionary War and in 1787 founded a prison reform society. Their efforts bore fruit even before those of England, and the United States became the first country to set an example to the world of a humane treatment of criminals.

The Society of Friends has developed to a remarkable extent beyond its own borders through home and foreign missions and adult First-Day Schools. There is a large number of persons who do not appear in the statistical returns that attend the Mission meetings of the Society and many come under their influence in the foreign mission field.

"We Have Done It Before—"

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I

"What is needed in international matters," thundered Roosevelt, "is to create a judge and then put police power back of the judge." To doubters he offered, to use his own vigorous words, the choice of "Utopia or Hell."

The President of the United States announced

that the world was upon the eve of establishing a "common force" which would safeguard right and maintain "a common peace." At the same meeting, the recently defeated candidate of the Republican Party favored an association in which the member nations would use "both their economic and military forces against any one of their number" that might

go to war before submitting a dispute to a world court or council of conciliation.

A Republican senator from Massachusetts supported the views of both the Democratic President and his defeated rival. "We must," he declared, "put force behind international peace." The Secretary of War, the presidents of the American Federation of Labor, of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, and of Harvard University as well as religious leaders spoke in a similar vein.

More than 90 per cent of all newspapers of the United States aided the movement and 2,300 clippings referring to it were collected in a single week. Organizations such as the American Bar and the American Bankers association announced their support.

II

What a familiar ring this has today! Yet it occurred not this year, but twenty-eight years ago. The Roosevelt was "Teddy"; the President, Woodrow Wilson. The defeated candidate (election of 1912) was ex-President Taft, not Wendell Willkie, and the Senator was the elder Lodge. The world conflict then raging was the First, not the Second World War. But the ideas expressed are almost identical with those we hear today.

Last summer a Gallup survey of public opinion found 74 per cent of the American people in favor of the establishment of "an international police force after the war is over to try to keep peace throughout the world." (The same question put to the British public indicates an equal proportion in support of such a force.) One hundred national organizations and governmental agencies are now busily planning for the settlement of post-war affairs by cooperation. The Republican party's Post-War Advisory Council voted unanimously at Mackinac not long ago for "responsible participation by the United States in post-war cooperative organization among sovereign nations to prevent military aggression and to attain permanent peace with organized justice in a free world."

At last the administration has acted, after biding its time until public opinion, the House of Representatives, and the Republican leaders had pushed the Senators to commit themselves. The old reliable, Cordell Hull, was sent to Moscow. He brought back the four-power pact recognizing the necessity of establishing "a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving states and open to membership by all such states, large and small, for the maintenance of international peace and security." Thereupon, the Senate concurred, accepting 90 to 6 the identical wording of the Moscow pact as quoted. Both the administration and the upper house are now com-

mitted to the establishment of an international association.

III

Even with this overwhelming sentiment for some sort of world organization, we cannot take for granted the acceptance of such a system by the United States. Internationalism was in the ascendant by the end of the *last* war and a League of Nations was established. But our own nation, whose President was the chief architect of the League, did not accept it. The American people turned from a moderate degree of internationalism to nationalism and even isolation.

Suppose we consider some of the reasons and conditions which led to our rejection of the League of Nations. They include clash of personalities, party politics, distrust of foreigners and the accompanying phobia over a possible loss of sovereignty, objection to the use of military force to enforce decisions of the League, the difficulty of gaining a two-thirds majority of the Senate, the confusion of the League issue in the election of 1920 and the emphasis upon the idealistic almost to the exclusion of the motive of self-interest. In each case let us see if similar arguments or conditions exist today or are likely to appear in the near future.

One of the commonest reasons assigned for the rejection in 1919 was a clash of personalities. I refer especially to the growing personal antagonism toward President Wilson as displayed by such men as Henry Cabot Lodge, Theodore Roosevelt, and George Harvey. Lodge was one of the strongest supporters of a league until the President accepted the plan. We cannot disregard the personal element today. Men are still swayed by hate. Whispering campaigns have flourished in the past and will be revived a dozen-fold upon the approach of victory.

A second reason was politics. It appears that Lodge and certain others of his party wanted to lay a claim to at least co-authorship of such a startling political phenomenon as a successful League of Nations. If the changes they would propose were not accepted, then the defeat of the League would be blamed on the President.

The several changes proposed by Lodge as Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations were not all acceptable to Woodrow Wilson. The President asked his followers to vote against the revised covenant of the League. On the other hand, the revisionists and opponents voted against the covenant as it was brought from Paris. A majority but not the necessary two-thirds vote could be secured for any form of the League.

Just as the question of a world association is not a partisan question today, neither was it during the last war. With neither party opposed to a league,

nevertheless, there was a violent fight over the league, and its authorship. With so many kinds of international associations under consideration at this moment, we may find ourselves unable to agree upon a particular organization. We have only to witness the difficulty of reaching agreement upon a Senate resolution in regard to a post-war organization to picture the possibility of a deadlock again.

The innate distrust of foreigners, even allies, must be admitted. We now have many who are most suspicious of the post-war intentions of Britain and Russia. Even those Senators who refused for so long to commit themselves have been known to demand: "What are Russia and Britain planning to do?" adding "I think we should find out."

Closely allied as an additional reason for rejecting internationalism in practice was the exaggerated fear that we would lose our national sovereignty. "I have never had but one allegiance—I cannot divide it now," declaimed the elder Lodge a short quarter of a century ago. "I have loved but one flag and I cannot share that devotion and give affection to the mongrel banner invented for a league," he continued. "National I must remain, and in that way, I, like all Americans, can render the amplest service to the world." "We cannot," he concluded, "hand the United States over bound hand and foot to obey the fiat of other powers."

Even today it is not difficult to picture a Taft, a Vandenberg, or a Champ Clark raising the storm signals and getting prolonged applause for a similar statement. If such is not the case, why have not the United Nations agreed upon a united command and common direction of the war?

In the discussions of the time it was obvious that there were objections to the possible use of force to preserve peace. Here is probably the greatest single objection to the League. When discussing the ideal of international cooperation, Senator and man in the street alike favored it. Of course we wanted a league of nations—in principle! In sentiment! But people didn't *know* what acceptance of the League would mean! They didn't realize the responsibilities involved. In accepting a workable League, we would have subscribed to the use of force as a final resort to oppose an aggressor. "But," said the American, "will we consent to having our boys come back from France safe and sound only to be sent later to Timbuctoo to defend a group of savages? Never."

The same misunderstanding and reluctance to accept responsibility exists today. Despite the millions we have scattered in far-away places, I am not sure we are yet ready to agree to defend Abyssinia or Manchuria in the post-war period. Certainly the Senate is not yet disposed to commit itself to such defense.

In all the discussion and maneuvering of 1919-

1920, the various suspicions and oppositions outlined above came to the surface. Honest misconceptions and deliberate obscurantism resulted in so much confusion that the average man had no clear picture of the issue at stake.

Still most Americans favored some form of international collaboration. In the election of 1920 President Wilson hoped to make the League the issue, having faith that the public would support his views. His hope was not realized. The Democratic Party did support his league, and even announced that some reservations would be acceptable. But the ambiguity of the Republican platform was such that the international-minded could support that party also. During his campaign Harding made many conflicting statements concerning his views on an Association of Nations. "It is not interpretation 'of the League' but rejection I am seeking," he stated, only to announce later that the League, if revised, might still be acceptable. And finally he pledged that if elected he would consult with the "best minds" in the country "to the end that we shall have an association of nations for the promotion of international peace." A typical Harding straddle!

In the midst of this campaign an appeal to Americans was made by thirty-one prominent Republican laymen. "We . . . believe," their statement ended, "that we can most effectively advance the cause of international cooperation to promote peace by supporting Mr. Harding for election to the Presidency." This pronouncement carried the signatures of Nicholas Murray Butler, Herbert Hoover, Henry Stimson, Charles Evan Hughes, President Lowell of Harvard, Elihu Root, and William Allen White. Voters favoring an international organization could, therefore, support either party. When Harding was elected, however, he looked upon the vote as endorsement of a policy of inaction. Enthusiasm for it had declined to such an extent that the general public seemed satisfied that he did nothing.

Suppose that we should win the war in 1944 and the President should propose an international organization, and at the same time run for a fourth term. It would be easy to conceive a situation in which his opponents would support a different type of international association as well as another President, and we could become just as confused about the election as in 1920. In such a situation, we might reject an international system once again.

One last reason for our rejection of internationalism in 1919-1920 was that the arguments in its favor were so often based on idealistic motives alone. Making the world safe for democracy, fighting a war to end all wars, and envisioning a "parliament of man" were inspiring. To Woodrow Wilson, our soldiers fighting against Germany had gone "forth to prove the might of justice and right and all the

world accepted them as crusaders. . . ." It was fine for Wilson to state that America at heart loves "freedom and right and justice more than it loves money and material prosperity. . . ." But he would have been more effective if he had emphasized the material advantages the League would have brought us. The few times that Wilson did speak of the selfish advantages of our membership he did so with an apology.

With this in mind, we should plan our future actions with realistic emphasis on the material advantages of international organization. It will be almost fatal for our diplomats to plan an international system based merely on idealistic generalizations. Sooner or later it would be put to the test of national interests; if few or none were apparent the plan would be rejected or eventually fail in operation. People who have made great sacrifices to win the war will be in no mood to make further sacrifices to win an idealistic peace.

Let us seek a system which will indeed help raise the standard of living throughout the world. Such a system will make for expanding markets, with jobs for all American workers. An argument we need not be ashamed of will then be that the manufacturer will be able to have expanding markets. Labor must be shown that the new system will create continuous jobs for American workers. For his part, the farmer will not support a system designed to assure each Hottentot a quart of milk daily, unless he is reasonably certain that farmers may get to sell that quart

of milk to the African. Investors must be shown that it would create opportunities for their capital in backward areas and would stabilize currencies abroad. Even adventurous spirits might be interested in the development of an international army and navy. We need not overlook material, local interest while seeking a better world order.

Sumner Wells in his Toronto address explained that Americans seek the noble objectives set forth in the Atlantic Charter:

Not because of any altruistic motives, not through the dictates of any theoretical idealism, but rather because they believe that the attainments of these objectives will be in their own self-interest—and I believe that in my own country we have learned through the bitter experience of the last quarter of a century that the most practical form of self-interest is enlightened self-interest.

We have seen beyond a shadow of a doubt that a policy of international cooperation which far too many told us twenty-four years ago was a policy of suicidal sentimentality was in fact a policy of hard-headed realism.

Most of us have learned a great truth . . . , and that is that the real self-interest of one nation coincides with the permanent, with the ultimate, self-interest of other nations.

For there is no people which will not profit more by peace than by war.

Motion Pictures in the Schools of Tomorrow

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One of the most important by-products of the present world conflict, and more especially of the extensive use of the motion picture film in the training program of our armed services and the production achievement of industry, will be a tremendous increase in the use of the educational film in the schools of tomorrow.

More instructional sound films will be available after the war. They will be of a higher type—specifically prepared for and especially suited to classroom needs. More distributing centers will be established, thereby making it easier to secure the films and assuring prompt and dependable delivery. This is a service that is too often lacking at the

present time, particularly in the case of those films that can be obtained free or by simply paying transportation charges. Rental prices, that today make many of the best films prohibitive for schools that are forced to operate on a limited budget, will undoubtedly be considerably reduced.

Already the National Association of Visual Education Dealers is discussing post-war plans for the distribution of more than 40,000 sixteen mm. projectors and equipment that will be released for the market by the armed services at the end of the conflict. It is working in cooperation with the Office of War Information in determining plans and policies relative to the distribution of non-theatrical pictures.

Not only will adequate equipment and a larger number of good films be available for the schools, but there will be better methods of utilizing the motion pictures in order to obtain the maximum instructional values from them. Already a steadily increasing number of surveys and studies, based on actual classroom needs and experiences in the use of films, are being made.

At long last the educational film is coming into its own. The greatest medium of communication, it knows no barrier of language nor of race nor of religion. A powerful factor in the building of international understanding and good will, it has in the words of T. Y. Lo, president of the China Motion Picture Corporation of Chungking, "A wider appeal than literature, a more emotional appeal than radio, and provides the easiest and speediest method of instructing the masses."

If motion pictures achieve all that they should be able to in the schools of tomorrow, administrators as well as classroom teachers must be prepared for the greatly expanded program. In the first place, adequate budgets should be provided for all necessary equipment, projection facilities, films and library material. This last item is almost entirely overlooked in the average school of today. But why should not magazine orders include such periodicals as *Business Screen*, *Educational Screen* and *The War and Films*? Certainly the various publications of the Motion Picture Project of the American Council on Education, especially the work entitled *Selected Educational Motion Pictures: A Descriptive Encyclopedia* and the companion volume by Charles F. Hoban, Jr., *Focus on Learning*, should be in every school. The H. W. Wilson, *Educational Film Catalog* is an indispensable aid of any teacher interested in a wise selection of motion pictures. There should be a comprehensive and up-to-date file of professional magazines, such as *Education for Victory* and *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, that publish regular columns devoted to visual aids. And finally, there should be a complete stock of the latest and best film catalogs from every available source.

The whole field of audio-visual education can best be handled by a trained director, a specialist in the field. But until such trained leadership is provided, regular classroom teachers, vitally interested in the program and willing to pioneer, must assume the responsibility. However, in such a case, administrators should not look upon the assignment as an extracurricular task added on to a teaching load that is already too heavy. It is not fair to ask any instructor, whose program allots only one hour per day to audio-visual education, to select and order all the films for her school, handle the problems of previewing, take care of a multiplicity of clerical tasks without any secretarial aid, keep the financial records

and check the transportation—in some cases actually taking the motion pictures to the post office, the express office or the central library of the school district, as the case may be. No teacher should be expected to carry a full-time job in visual instruction unless her entire day is set aside for that particular work. Yet, such is the practice in some of our schools of today.

No motion picture program can possibly succeed without sufficient financial support, good trained leadership and adequate administrative recognition as an integral and vital part of the school curriculum. There must be ample time for research—time to keep abreast of the latest book and magazine material, the newest experimental methods and the most recent film releases.

The director of audio-visual education must be familiar with the subject content of all department courses. She must have time to confer with each department head or representative, if not with each individual teacher, in order to advise the right film for each instructional unit within the subject field.

Too much emphasis cannot be put upon the need for careful timing of the motion picture lesson. It is of utmost importance that the film be shown at the very stage in the development of the topic or the unit when it will do most to vitalize and enrich the lesson. For example, the films, "Lincoln in the White House," might well be shown to introduce the subject of Lincoln's presidency. Then the class might turn to the text and read the portion dealing with the topic. Some students could easily be encouraged to go beyond the assigned reading and cull some of the best collateral references in the library. The picture might then be shown a second time. Such procedure is certain to stimulate the class discussion that should follow.

Again, a particular picture may be selected to summarize a definite period of history. Such is the film, "Land of Liberty." The first two parts afford an excellent summary of United States history up to the Civil War, while the last two parts present the vital movements and developments since that crisis.

Motion pictures are an excellent device for correlation and integration within the departmental fields. A film on electricity may be of value not only to classes in that particular subject, but may be used to emphasize the part of electricity in history and in art. It has a very direct application to courses in home economics and in science.

The possibilities of motion pictures in the schools of tomorrow cannot be overestimated. Instructional films will expand beyond limit the range of material available to education. Let us see to it that we do not fail to keep pace with the rapidly changing world in which we live.

Science and the Social Studies

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The teaching of science during a period when the world is at war obviously involves problems not in the foreground during a peaceful era.

First, the attention of the children is riveted on daily happenings; their excitement is constantly being fanned by radio broadcasts. In order to focus the interest of the pupils on the textual knowledge essential for a basic course, the information must be associated, so far as possible, with war uses. Yet, now, more than ever, is the time for thorough mastery of fundamentals, for graduates are going into entirely new occupations. General science often proves a good testing field for aptitudes; it also furnishes comprehension of the work done by others in war industries.

One "method of attack" is by means of re-reading the text and re-evaluating the optional paragraphs in each chapter. Some of these, due to recent discoveries, are outdated, but whether up-to-date or not, the material may be given a wartime slant, and examples written in of war services, to be amplified in classroom discussion at the discretion of the teacher. The time ordinarily allotted to the study of basic paragraphs may occasionally be shortened, or, as in the case of the optional material, be more directly brought into relation with current events. Actual tabulation proves the students can learn several complicated descriptions of procedures more easily than one simple fact or theory, provided the former has awakened a livelier interest.

Revising the list of experiments is more difficult. Also it is less needed, for the actual performance of tasks and their apparently magical results invariably engage the enthusiasm of the pupils, so that it is frequently a better policy to keep a well organized schedule of experiments intact, while constantly linking them to present-day utilization of principles involved. For instance, in studying magnets or barometers, even the duller members of the class can contribute to an enumeration of the war uses of these instruments.

One particular tendency to guard against is the inclination of the students to simplify matters for themselves by attempting, whenever a phrase has been found appropriate on a few occasions, to fit it in as many places as possible, whether applicable or not. As in economics, where the much abused "supply and demand" is the supposedly infallible

response to all questions of an economic nature, so, in science, when the query is put as to the composition of an article, the inevitable reply is "plastic."

Popularizations of recent (and less recent, but significant) discoveries are helpful—those I have found most valuable are in the science columns of *Time* and the Sunday section of the *New York Times*; the short pieces entitled "Do You Know," in the *Christian Science Monitor*, and the weekly summaries in the same paper; also an occasional article in *Reader's Digest*. Members of the class are asked, when they listen to radio broadcasts or read papers or magazines, to remember information about new "gadgets," or novel ways of utilizing familiar objects. While at first these halting reports are frequently inadequate, sometimes this very inadequacy will redound to class benefit by affording other students the opportunity of embroidering on the framework. The accounts steadily improve as the pupils practice the habit of careful attention, and learn to make immediate notations at the moment of hearing a news item.

In these times it will often be found that some students will have had summer positions in defense plants, and will enjoy telling their classmates about their work. These narrations are of service for several reasons. First, they point a path for others to follow. Second, they bring the rest of the class into closer touch with the actual performance of war duties by persons of their own age. Third, they train the pupil to summarize his own observations, and increase his self-confidence in the oral rendition of describing work processes and conditions. Discussion of the student's especial task is scarcely sufficient, for it is likely to have been routine, but most youngsters will reveal awareness of what is going on around them; they will be able to convey an impression of the factory itself, the people who are employed there, and the jobs of others besides themselves. In order not to lose sight of the forest for the trees, it is well to be sure that the student giving the talk knows the larger purpose of the work as a whole, and how each infinitesimal chore plays its part. Then, in the future, other boys and girls taking similar positions will be more alert to perceive changes in techniques. Oral reports are preferable to written because their less formal nature permits class members to ask questions. The pupils should be encouraged in the occasional use of the blackboard for sketching, instead of depending entirely upon verbal exposition.

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Few academic subjects today are completely unrelated to the national crisis; modern warfare itself is based upon science, in the adoption of surgical

methods and military engines—and young people are eager to identify themselves with the war effort.

The New Deal in Retrospect

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More than ten years have passed since the triumphant Democratic party announced the New Deal as a chance to defeat the depression and bring back prosperity. Now that President Roosevelt has expressed a desire to abolish the "New Deal" as a political phrase, the decade must fade into history to be judged harshly or benignly by the American people. This article is an attempt to summarize, and to express an attitude that may be somewhat less prejudiced than ordinary street talk.

New Deal legislation may be roughly classified into three groups. One group would consist of those measures which failed, either because of an adverse court decision or because public sentiment or circumstances not foreseen ruled them out. A second group would include certain measures which were intended to be temporary, and the third group would consist of measures which come under the heading of permanent New Deal reforms.

The National Industrial Recovery Administration may be regarded as the most conspicuous example of the first group. Whether the "blue eagle" campaign might eventually have become a success will never be known, as there was no opportunity to straighten out the kinks and get the codes into effective operation. The Supreme Court decided that it was not within the province of the Executive Department to substitute codes for law, the less important business men and manufacturers feared the power the NIRA would give to large corporations, and General Hugh Johnson resigned in disgust. The one legacy which remains is the famous seventh clause, which admitted the right of collective bargaining. This clause, together with subsequent pro-labor legislation, initiated a movement in organized labor which has given the workingman more influence and power than he has ever before been able to exercise in our national life. Whether he can or will assume the responsibility which goes with this increased power and influence is still a moot issue.

The first Agricultural Adjustment Administration attempted to relieve the distressed farmer, who for more than a decade had been suffering from low returns, loss of an export market, and the ever-present weather complications. The processing tax, which

was intended to guarantee him a fair price for his produce, was declared unconstitutional, and the New Deal was obliged to start out on another line of attack. Again the historian is left without a clue as to how successful the processing tax might have been. It looked good in theory, but was never worked out in practice.

The Economy Act, passed very early in the New Deal administration, strange as it seems now, was an act promising to reduce Federal expenditures. That it failed was no fault of the Supreme Court, but of circumstances which lead to heavy expenditures and deficit financing. No doubt money was wasted and the charges of extravagance were not unfounded, but the emergency was steadily growing more difficult to handle, and the theory that we could spend our way out had at first a great many supporters.

These three examples taken from the first group of laws should suffice to cover roughly the initial "experimental" phases of the New Deal. Administration leaders frankly admitted that these measures were experimental, and that they might attempt similar policies which would not succeed, but the pressure was heavy, and it was better to do something than nothing.

Temporary New Deal agencies coming within the second group are almost too numerous to mention, but those which lasted for a while and are most familiar are probably the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, Home Owners' Loan Corporation, Federal Housing Authority, Works Progress Administration, and the National Youth Administration. These, together with others of a similar nature, were widely criticized and were denounced vigorously in newspapers and periodicals, but the "silent voter" approved them overwhelmingly in 1936, and somewhat less enthusiastically in 1940. They drained the taxpayer's pocket-book, but they saved many millions from acute distress. Whether their benefits might have been gained more intelligently or less expensively, whether they might have been operated without the political stench which accompanied them; these and similar questions time alone can answer. Moderate New Dealers regretted their necessity, but pointed to the unwilling-

ness or inability of communities, states, and privately owned industry to meet the staggering problem of unemployment.

Two of the agencies named above were self-liquidating and were strongly opposed only by bankers and credit merchants who resented government competition. However, as it turned out, the Federal Housing Authority proved a boon to lending firms, as all the government undertook to do was to insure loans without actually advancing the money. In four years the FHA underwrote \$1,825,000,000 of home mortgages and made new loans for improvements amounting to \$775,000,000. By 1940 it had been responsible for covering a large part of the cost of construction of about half the new homes built during the depression.

The other self-liquidating agency, Home Owners' Loan Corporation, took over more than a million mortgages amounting to \$3,000,000,000, though this was less than one-eighth of the urban mortgage debt in 1932. Distressed home owners benefited by interest reductions amounting to \$60,000,000, and were enabled to retain the homes they were purchasing. When liquidation of this agency has been completed the whole story can be told, but in the meantime many Americans will remember with gratitude the credit granted to them in time of need.

Most bitterly opposed of all the alphabetical bureaus was the Works Progress Administration. Operating throughout the nation, its weaknesses were obvious and undeniable. There were "made work," political patronage, "soldiering on the job," and many other abuses. Opponents tried to convince the voters that most of the WPA'ers were loafers who would not work for private employers, and there were cases in which available jobs were refused, with or without good reason. But near the close of the depression decade, when the call for defense workers went out, the WPA shrank, in spite of the efforts of politicians to keep it alive, and time has proved that those who preferred government support to the self-respect of an honest job were so few in number as to be negligible. The butt of many good and many cruel jokes, the WPA survived them all, like Henry Ford's cheap car.

Probably the most potent argument against the WPA (and much that is said of it might also be applied to the PWA) was seldom heard when this agency was in full blossom. The real tragedy was that, throughout its career, it could serve only a few millions of the many millions of unemployed. The cost? Over a seven year period it was about \$10,000,000,000—enough to pay for a few weeks of warfare.

Now for the other side of the picture. In cold figures, the WPA:

made 360,000,000 garments and household

articles for distribution to the needy.¹
served 878,000,000 lunches to school children.
built or improved 628,000 miles of streets.
built 75,000 new bridges and reconstructed 45,000 more.
constructed 256 airports with 3,600,000 feet of new runways.
built 32,400 new buildings and renovated 79,800.
built 39,000 school buildings.
installed or improved 26,000 miles of storm and sanitary sewers, 19,000 miles of water mains, 3,700 water and sewage plants.
constructed or improved 8,000 parks.
installed 1,600 swimming and wading pools.
built 9,800 tennis courts.
constructed or improved several thousand playgrounds and athletic fields.

Finally, we come to the third group—the permanent reforms initiated by the New Deal administration. We might expect that the strongest opposition would be directed against these efforts to remodel our national "way of life," but quite the contrary; of all the measures attempted these found the most widespread acceptance. Some of them were even included in the platforms of the opposition party in 1936 or in 1940, or both.

(1) Regulation of stock markets and public utilities by the Securities Exchange Commission. This agency may have interfered with the free flow of capital into industry and business but it has also interfered with the free flow of "sucker-money" into broker's offices. So far it has presented the buying of stocks on a narrow margin, with the subsequent wiping out of the savings of millions. It has convicted nearly a thousand swindlers who had been allowed to operate under the loose supervision of state laws for the past thirty or forty years.

(2) Insurance of bank deposits by the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation. From 1934 to 1942, the FDIC has protected 1,247,638 depositors of 381 insolvent banks. Total deposits were \$479,497,000 all but 2.2 per cent of which were made available without loss. Whatever may be charged against the New Deal, it has restored and maintained the confidence of the American people in both national and state banks.

(3) Social Security. With the exception of certain subsidiary benefits, some of which are temporary, social security pays its own way. It is insurance, therefore good business, and the law permits a large measure of state autonomy. Mistakes have been made, and portions of the law will be revised from time to time, but opposition has decreased as benefits have

¹ Thirty-one per cent of the cost was met locally. The facts included here may be found in the *World Almanac*, 1943.

been realized. In the post-war period, when temporary unemployment seems inevitable, the value of nation-wide insurance against want will be still further appreciated as a stabilizing factor.

(4) Tennessee Valley Authority. As time marches on, there seems to be a reduced tendency to find fault with this experiment. Opposition has prevented the adoption of similar projects in other parts of the nation, but during its brief history the TVA has extended power and light to about 500,000 customers, of whom about 335,000 were residential and farm customers. The rates are low in spite of the fact that the project pays a portion of its income to the states in lieu of taxes. Power is being distributed by eighty-three municipalities, including most of the large cities of the region.

(5) Farmers may praise or blame the New Deal for the Soil Conservation and Domestic Allotment Act of 1936; for the Farm Credit Administration; for the establishment of the Federal Crops Insurance Corporation in 1938; for the somewhat dubious Subsistence Homesteads Division of 1933, which became the Resettlement Administration in 1935; and for the Rural Electrification Administration which plans ultimately to furnish light and power for about 700,000 farm homes.

(6) Full recognition of the right of collective bargaining, recognition of the right to organize without coercion, and wage hour standards; these three were the chief gains of Labor from the New Deal legislation. The United States Employment Service was strengthened and expanded, and probably for all time to come the principle that the Federal government will take the responsibility for reducing and eliminating unemployment has been established. This principle establishes a new policy in our national life.

(7) Reciprocal trade treaties and an export-import bank to stimulate foreign trade are New Deal contributions to our international relations. Fairly effective before the war, their fate in the future is uncertain.

(8) Federal authority over transportation and communication were strengthened (for better or worse) by the appointment of a Coordinator of Transportation in 1933, the establishment of radio broadcasting control in 1934, and by the Civil Aeronautics Act of 1938.

(9) Finally, the New Deal has a right to claim credit or blame for the repeal of the Prohibition amendment in 1933, and for the strengthening and improvement of the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Pure Food laws.

Whatever the final verdict may be, the New Deal was anything but idle. Its legislation invaded many fields in which the states had formerly exercised control, set up new agencies almost without end, and established certain principles which are unique in

our history. Lavish expenditures were inevitable in such a program, lending support to the opposition claim of unwarranted extravagance.

It must be admitted that the New Deal did not solve the unemployment problem; it helped some, but added little to our knowledge of how to prevent wholesale unemployment at the low point in the "business cycle." If we cannot control the business cycle, there are apparently two ways to reduce distress caused by unemployment; we can give direct relief, or we can administer what is called "work relief," to avoid making paupers out of people. The New Deal tried the second method, but it was the war boom, not the New Deal, which put the finishing touches on unemployment in 1940.

"Pump priming" as a cure for depressions, whether attempted by Hoover through the Reconstruction Finance Corporation or by Roosevelt's New Deal, is a highly artificial process that helped some but not enough. Hoover's policy of funneling money into the large banks and industries in the hope that it would filter down through and thus create employment and restore public confidence was hardly a success, or at least was wholly insufficient to meet the need.

In trying to help the farmer, the New Deal failed as often as it succeeded, and finally the farmer secured an adequate return through conditions with which the New Deal had nothing to do. However, the later farm programs adopted two principles which may find wide application in the future, because they are economically sound: soil conservation and crop insurance. Crop insurance from a business point of view is just as sound as life, fire, and health insurance, and can be justified on the same grounds.

Possibly labor was petted and pampered by the New Deal beyond reason, as many believe. But if this is true, the balance can be restored by legislation which will compel organized labor to assume responsibility and to clean house in its own bailiwick.

The most bitter complaints against the New Deal probably came from those who saw in the complete picture regimentation, a planned society, perhaps even a dictatorship. Their fears were encouraged by what was happening in Europe, especially in Italy and Germany. They objected to the high degree of centralization in Washington bureaus of the executive department, the huge appropriations that had to be provided for every agency, the apparent threat to state governments and the restrictions on individual initiative. Many found fault with the dreamers and visionaries who wished to create a new social order, an American "Utopia."

Beginning in 1940, defense and the war made bureaucracy, with all its faults, more and more necessary, and extended its scope far beyond the dreams of the wildest New Deal reformer. Wholesale regi-

mentation came with it, and since we are fighting desperate enemies, we submit cheerfully in many of our day-to-day activities. Washington has become the central source of war plans and peace plans, the heart of the nation in every sense of the word. Whether they like it or not, the states will submit to their lowly status as long as the war lasts, and with good reason; for this is "one nation" now, welded together by two great emergencies, a world-wide depression and a

world-wide war.

When the proper time comes, we can taper off the bureaus; we can reduce regimentation; we can recognize state sovereignty in matters properly coming under state control. History teaches only this: that we can never return to "normalcy." Success or failure, the New Deal should have taught us that democracy thrives under strong opposition. God bless the Opposition!

Pupil Preferences in the Learning of Dates

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Teaching dates has always been a problem with the history teacher; learning these dates has always been one of the chores of the pupil. The question of the economy of learning specific dates or approximate dates of events has undoubtedly arisen for every teacher. Although no conclusive scientific evidence has been offered in support of either type, it is suggested by Murra, Wesley, and Zink in a summary of the status of research in the social studies that exact dates are probably superior in terms of economy of learning.¹

Another approach to the learning of dates is the study of pupil interest or preference in the matter. Much has been written and discussed in educational theory about the criterion of pupil interest in the selection of method and content, in fact, probably a good deal more than has actually been carried into effect. This study was made for the purpose of determining to what extent a teacher could be guided by the preferences expressed by pupils in the learning of specific or approximate dates.

Accordingly, eighteen events were incorporated into multiple-choice items of four responses each, and the subjects were to select the one response they thought they would remember best if they had to learn it. They were informed that all four responses were correct. This was not to be a test; it was a request only for opinions. The items used were as follows:

- ...1. Napoleon was born: (1) in 1769; (2) in the eighteenth century; (3) a long time ago; (4) about 1775.
- ...2. I was born: (1) in the twentieth century; (2) about 1928,² (3) a few years ago; (4) about 14 years ago.³
- ...3. The first calendar was devised: (1)

around 4000 B.C.; (2) once upon a time; (3) ages ago; (4) in 4241 B.C.

- ...4. The next presidential election will be: (1) in 1944; (2) during the next decade; (3) in a couple of years; (4) in the near future.
- ...5. The telephone was invented: (1) in the nineteenth century; (2) in 1876; (3) in pioneer days; (4) around 1870.
- ...6. I started first grade: (1) about 1935;⁴ (2) during the last decade; (3) some time ago; (4) about 10 years ago.⁵
- ...7. Knights in armor lived: (1) in olden times; (2) about 1200 A.D.; (3) in the thirteenth century; (4) about 700 years ago.
- ...8. The Greeks had a great civilization: (1) about 450 B.C.; (2) in ancient times; (3) about 2400 years ago; (4) years ago.
- ...9. Harding was elected President: (1) before I was born; (2) in 1920; (3) several years ago; (4) about 20 years ago.
- ...10. The English defeated the Spanish fleet: (1) in 1588 A.D.; (2) in the sixteenth century; (3) at the beginning of modern times; (4) around 1600 A.D.
- ...11. The First World War started: (1) in the early part of the nineteenth century; (2) almost 30 years ago; (3) before I was born; (4) in 1914.
- ...12. The American Revolution started: (1) in the eighteenth century; (2) in the days of our forefathers; (3) in 1775; (4) close to 1800.
- ...13. Julius Caesar was assassinated: (1) in 44 B.C.; (2) in the first century before

¹ *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (1941), p. 1141.

² Changed to 1925 in the senior high school form.

³ Changed to 17 years ago in the senior high school form.

⁴ Changed to 1932 in the senior high school form.

⁵ Changed to 13 years ago in the senior high school form.

- Christ; (3) in ancient times; (4) about 2,000 years ago.
- ..14. Queen Victoria started to rule England: (1) in 1837; (2) in the nineteenth century; (3) around 1850; (4) about 100 years ago.
- ..15. The Suez Canal was opened: (1) in the nineteenth century; (2) in 1869; (3) around 1875; (4) the last half of the nineteenth century.
- ..16. R. Amundsen reached the South Pole: (1) in the first quarter of the twentieth century; (2) about 30 years ago; (3) in 1911; (4) around 1900.
- ..17. Harvard University was founded: (1) in colonial times; (2) around 300 years ago; (3) in the seventeenth century; (4) in 1636.
- ..18. Hannibal was defeated: (1) before Christ was born; (2) in 202 B.C.; (3) about 2,000 years ago; (4) several centuries ago.

It can be seen from the items that the possible types of responses are exact dates, centuries and other approximations, and vague, indefinite time phrases. The survey was conducted in November, 1942, among 322 junior high school pupils and 345 senior high school pupils in Minneapolis, Minnesota. The test subjects were almost equally distributed from the seventh to the twelfth grades and were almost evenly divided in sex.

The percentages of pupils choosing each of the four responses for all items were computed. From these results, the data were obtained for the following table showing the number of the responses that was picked most often by both junior and senior high groups, as well as the percentage of pupils selecting it.

RESPONSES TO DATE OPINION ITEMS SELECTED MOST FREQUENTLY BY PUPILS

Item No.	Junior High School		Senior High School	
	Response	Per Cent	Response	Per Cent
1.	2	52	2	61
2.	2	36	2	46
3.	1	43	1	62
4.	1	55	1	74
5.	1	44	1	47
6.	4	40	4	62
7.	1	42	3	58
8.	2	58	2	42
9.	1	40	2	36
10.	2	44	2	42
11.	4	40	4	63
12.	3	27	3	47
13.	3	35	1	35
14.	4	39	4	35
15.	1	37	4	44
16.	2	38	2, 4	32 each
17.	1	37	1	36
18.	1	33	1	36

The percentages of pupils recorded for each of the most frequent choices of responses in nearly all cases are less than half of the total. This indicates wide scattering of preferences among the pupils, rather than very definite agreement.

There is agreement in the most frequent choice by both junior high and senior high school pupils, with four exceptions. These are items seven, nine, thirteen, and fifteen. These will be considered later.

One would expect pupils who preferred to learn exact dates to be fairly consistent in selecting them for their responses. However, only four such dates were selected. These are as follows:

- No. 2. I was born about 1928 (1925 for senior high).
- No. 4. The next presidential election will be in 1944.
- No. 11. The First World War started in 1914.
- No. 12. The American Revolution started in 1775.

It is reasonable for a pupil to select these exact dates. He is familiar with his birthday; it is easy to look forward to the next election. The two historical dates stand out in history.

In three cases a century was chosen. These are:

- No. 1. Napoleon was born in the eighteenth century.
- No. 5. The telephone was invented in the nineteenth century.
- No. 10. The English defeated the Spanish Fleet in the sixteenth century.

In three cases, some extremely vague time expressions were selected. These are:

- No. 8. The Greeks had a great civilization in ancient times.
- No. 17. Harvard University was founded in colonial times.
- No. 18. Hannibal was defeated before Christ was born.

If time were taught in such general fashion, it is doubtful that it could have much meaning.

In four cases, the time description that was picked was not exact, and not so vague. These are:

- No. 3. The first calendar was devised around 4000 B.C.
- No. 6. I started first grade about seven (ten for senior high) years ago.
- No. 14. Queen Victoria started to rule England about 100 years ago.
- No. 16. R. Amundsen reached the South Pole about thirty years ago.

Of the four items where disagreement was recorded for choices in the junior high and senior high school, the responses are as follows:

Junior High

- No. 7. Knights in armor lived in olden times.
- No. 9. Harding was elected President before I was born.
- No. 13. Julius Caesar was assassinated in ancient times.
- No. 15. The Suez Canal was opened in the nineteenth century.

Senior High

- No. 7. Knights in armor lived in the thirteenth century.
- No. 9. Harding was elected President in 1920.
- No. 13. Julius Caesar was assassinated in 44 B.C.

- No. 15. The Suez Canal was opened in the last half of the nineteenth century.

A survey of these results brings out certain definite conclusions. First, there might be economy in learning exact dates, but pupils do not prefer to learn them; neither do they prefer to use centuries. As a matter of fact, they are hardly consistent about their preference for any particular type of time expression. These facts do not minimize the value of pupil interest as a criterion for selecting content and method, but they do show that interest must be supplemented by such other factors as learnability and utility in the judgment of teachers.

Music, Propaganda and Morale¹

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"It's a pity that Satan should have all of the best tunes." *John Wesley*

The word "propaganda" in modern times has taken on a dishonorable meaning. There is a wide misconception of propaganda as something which is always bad. The writer hopes to show that in the past it was used to advantage as a means of indoctrinating people with an ideal. It has also helped people to think constructively about ideas. Any medium through which an idea can be propagated and facts disseminated automatically becomes a means of propaganda. The popular song, "Any Bonds Today," is an illustration of one way in which music is being used to spread an idea, and it is an effective way. With an understanding of how closely music is integrated with life, it should not be difficult to use music as an instrument in developing the higher morale that is so needed today.

The social implications of knowledge are understood and applied in education. In the language of the "jitterbug," music has been kept "strictly out of this world." No matter how abstract at times, music causes individuals and groups to react to it in terms of emotion. This was learned early in the history of man and used accordingly. It is our purpose, here, to show how music has been used from the beginning of time for propaganda and morale purposes. Buried beneath the top heavy domain of art-for-art sake is a

great wealth of historical data which we should use in order to instill democratic ideals.

When men fought among themselves and picked the strongest as the leader, the first step in the organization of society was taken. However, as the leader began to lose his physical prowess, it became apparent that in order to maintain his prestige and the morale of the community, indoctrination among his followers was necessary. Very often, this propaganda took on the form of a chant in praise of the leader. His virtues were extolled and the vast horde which supported him was stirred by tales of his heroic deeds and valor.

As we come to Bible times, we find that primitive music played a vital part in the organization of the community. All kinds of horns were used to rally people, to make them more enthusiastic for battle and to convince them that the Lord was back of everything that the leader did or advocated. Religious leaders were quick to see the advantages of using music, and from the earliest times it helped people become more fervent in their devotion. A study of early Hebrew music reveals a high degree of emotionalism, which is as effective today as in the earliest Biblical times.

The early Greeks were barbarians. They extolled the virtues of strong muscles and heroism in battle. As Greek civilization progressed, however, culture growing out of the lives of the people resulted in a higher type of art than ever before. Their early literature was a glorification of the past. Music, which was compulsory for the education of every child, was also used as a means of converting people to a more whole-

¹ In the February, 1944, issue of *Leadership Education*, Mr. Moses outlined a basis for the integration of music into a general curriculum. This article explores the possibilities for integrating music into a social studies curriculum. (Ed.)

some life. Early Greek philosophy united all of the arts in a glorification of the prowess of Greece. Music was essential to a play which was enacted in an amphitheatre of the finest design. As a result of this education, the Greek boy was indoctrinated to believe that his nation and his leaders were superior to all others. It was his sacred duty to protect and preserve them. Religion, of course, enters into the Greek picture. The gods and goddesses were often lauded in music, and Euterpe, the muse of music, inspired poet and singer in her own favor.

Music played an important part in early Roman life. The trumpet was originally a Roman instrument used to initiate a battle or announce the triumphant return from war. Music was used not only to celebrate battles, but also to urge people on to greater triumph. It heralded the victor and helped silence the cries of the vanquished. It can be said, here, that even in modern times the sound of the trumpet produces an intoxicating effect, especially when it is accompanied by the beating of a drum. Witness, then, the morale value of the trumpet in history.

Of the drum, John Scott, (1730-1783) said:

I hate the drum's discordant sound,
Parading round, and round, and round:
To me it talks of ravaged plains,
And burning towns, and ruined swains,
And mangled limbs and dying groans,
And widows' tears, and orphans' moans;
And all that Misery's hand bestows
To fill the catalogue of human woes.

While Augustus was Emperor of Rome, Christ was born in Bethlehem. Even before this time, the Jews were worshipping God in the Temple with singing and instruments. These chants and choir responses extolled the greatness of the Lord and helped unify the people as a nation. With the crucifixion of Christ a new religion was born preaching the doctrine of the angels who sang of peace on earth, good will towards men. In Rome, the followers of Christ met with persecution and martyrdom and as a result they have been glorified forever in music. No greater religious propaganda is available.

The beginnings of the Christmas carols and their development should be mentioned here. From the Holy Night in Judea, artists delighted in painting pictures of the Virgin and the Child. Simultaneously, many simple songs grew up in glorification of the Christ Child. The religious propaganda which the carols carry is most effective because the tunes and the words are generally simple enough for the greatest number of people to sing and experience. The bells, which are intended to carry the tidings of joy, also help stir up much religious enthusiasm and emotional fervor.

In the period of knighthood, music was used again in an interesting way. At that time, even the ruler was not all powerful. The strong men of the kingdom, who had won large grants of land for services during the wars, were more powerful than the kings themselves. These feudal lords surrounded themselves with knights in order to protect themselves and their families. During this period, many songs arose to cheer the knights into fighting to protect the lord and master. While the knight was glorified forever in poetry and song, his principal reward was the pain of disease, the tyranny of unjust laws, and the unhappiness of constant warfare. When discontent resulted, and knighthood became a restless profession, the knights were inspired to go off in search of the Holy Grail. A wave of religious enthusiasm swept Europe at this time and crusades were initiated to "civilize the heathen Turks," who occupied Jerusalem. The weary crusaders were spurred on to action on the hot sands of Syria by many old songs of courage, such as "The Crusaders' Hymn."

By the end of the fourteenth century, knighthood had withered. Whatever was left of it evidenced itself in the chanteurs, jongleurs, troubadours, and the minnesingers. These began as wealthy minstrels who wandered from place to place, but eventually they were no longer supported by the feudal courts. In their songs can be seen the true nature of this change. The early songs had such titles as "I have a Pretty Cake" and "Robin Loves Me." The later songs reveal the desperate straits of the wondering beggar minstrels. Two of these are entitled "Begging Mercy" and "Neither Bad Times. . ." In time, the music of these singers was forgotten and their function became the amusing of people in the market place for pennies.

But the dissemination of these secular songs had two important outcomes:

- (1) It paved the way for the coming of the music guilds
- (2) It nurtured the beginnings of folk music—music which grew out of the large masses of untutored peoples.

Most people living in feudal days were neither knightly troubadours nor paid minstrels. Most of them were workers in the field, forest and village. They were kept busy supplying the castle with food, clothing and other things for the comfort of the feudal lord. The work was arduous, the hours long. One way to relieve the monotony was to sing. In this period the folk song and dance began to rise in popularity. When the day's work was done, dancing on the green was the greatest pleasure that simple people desired. They danced to celebrate a special festival or merely to gain rest from labor. Thus, music became

a mirror reflecting the morale of the people who created it. If the people suffered from tyranny, or had to endure long gloomy winters of ice and snow, the sadness of their lives crept into it. If they were joyful and happy, the music was also joyful and happy.

There is an important lesson to be learned from a study of folk music and its history. By listening to the folk music from another country, one is very likely to be sympathetic to the country from which it springs. In this way, folk music is perhaps the best propaganda for good will among nations. It brings about an appreciation of the common heritage which belongs to all people. While folk music is highly nationalistic, it is not aggressive because it has too much in common with the folk lore of other nations.

We must not forget, however, that all of the arts up to this time were nurtured by the Church. Martin Luther, during this period, was one of the first to see that people loved to sing. He was classed among the dissenters when he permitted his parishioners to sing chorales in the vernacular. The monumental Masses and the giant cathedrals with their enormous murals were the principal means of converting people to the more wholesome life. Many musical forms, from the simple chorale of Luther to the Mass, were invented by church musicians for this purpose.

It was only natural that the early classical composers should have put stress on religion in music. Like all the other arts, music was used by the clergy to intensify fervor for expression in religion. There is a great emphasis on religion throughout the works of Bach, Handel, Haydn and Mozart. Handel's "Messiah" is a great example of the music of this period. This highly dramatic work is almost secular in style. Handel, the showman, utilized every technic at his command to get the message across. "The Hallelujah Chorus" still electrifies audiences everywhere.

All the works of Johann Sebastian Bach reflect a close contact with his God. Lawrence Gilman, who formerly wrote the Philadelphia Orchestra Program Notes, states that when Mr. Stokowski first played his own orchestration of "Come Sweet Death," by Bach, men and women in the audience openly wept. Of course, the title here is highly suggestive, but there is little doubt that the emotional quality of the music made its point.

Haydn, while in England heard "God Save the King" (which is a clever bit of musical propaganda in itself), and then wrote a national anthem for Austria. He later glorified it in his "Emperor Quartet" as a theme and variations. The emperor and Austria are gone. The composition is preserved forever to reveal the important functions of music in the early part of the eighteenth century.

At the close of the classical period, a storm arose over political Europe. Revolution was in the air. With it came the songs of people to awake and overthrow

tyranny and oppression. Very poor people were timid in speech. They could not express themselves in forceful language, but they could recite and sing of their troubles in simple homespun ballads. From beneath the quiet certainty that all was going well in the world arose two swift currents to unite in the maelstrom of revolution:

- (1) Deep dissatisfaction of the poor with their lot; and
- (2) The determination of thinking men to change the unequal conditions.

One of these thinkers was Rouget de Lisle who wrote the "Marseillaise," some good musical propaganda. With a strong, rhythmic swing and fiery words, it helped bring liberation to the poor. To this day, it stands as the symbol of victory over oppression.

The Revolution destroyed the monarchy in France, but it also paved the way for the coming of Napoleon. He, in turn, caused a great wave of nationalism throughout Europe. This was no more than an attempt to offset his conquests. Beethoven's music parallels this period. There are many contradicting stories about his dedication of the symphony "Eroica" to "the memory of a great man." The symphony, however, in its heroic style, is the very embodiment of the drama of his times. In the stirring funeral march, there is a dirge-like dedication of the memory of fallen heroes and then Liberty seems to march on to a triumphant finale. Beethoven was an ardent revolutionary. In his ninth symphony he tells that he is preaching the common brotherhood of man. Today, the British Broadcasting Company, which broadcasts propaganda to the occupied countries in Europe, uses the first movement of his Fifth Symphony as the symbol of the V for Victory (. . . —) movement.

As the bridge between the classical and romantic periods, Beethoven cleared the road for a long line of romanticists. This meant a complete break with tradition. A composer was free to say what he wanted in any way he chose to say it. Along with a large variety of emotions expressed in their music, these composers built up a great national spirit by glorifying in music the poetry of Goethe, Schiller and Heine. This poetry had a folk base or historical significance. Examples are the "Lorelei," "Erlking," and "The Two Grenadiers."

The ideals of the Romantic period may be summarized briefly as having the following purposes:

- (1) To make music express feeling.
- (2) To make music tell a story.
- (3) To make music, as never before, represent the spirit of nationalism.

With the ascent of nationalism, we find a very obvious form of propaganda in music. Through it, the composer glorifies the country from which he

comes. Norway gave the world Grieg; Poland, Chopin; Hungary, Liszt; Bohemia, Smetana and Dvorak; Russia, Tchaikovsky, Moussorgsky and others; England, Elgar and Sullivan; Germany produced Schumann and Wagner.

With the advent of early Italian and French opera, there arose the baroque style of Rossini, Donizetti and Bellini. These were solo and ensemble concerts tied together by a superficial story. In the French opera which came later, a more serious attempt was made to combine libretto and music as a common means of expression. The opera "Faust," which is based on the drama by Goethe, is an excellent example of religious propaganda in secular style. Gounod, who was an ardent church musician, saw to it that the hero and heroine, who suffered the pangs of hell on this earth, were glorified in heaven to the most resplendent music. This was characteristic of the teachings of the times: suffering on this earth was rewarded with eternal peace in the next. Thus, at the end of the opera, the lovers were united in pomp, majesty and glory as they left for the heavenly regions.

In Italy, Verdi composed his early operas in the style of Rossini, Donizetti and Bellini. In his early period, Italy was groaning under Austrian misrule. His second opera, "I Lombardi," composed in 1843, was a signal for a clash with the censor. The libretto did not deal directly with Italy's wrongs, but included verses which were quite susceptible to patriotic interpretation. Even the presence of the police could not silence the tumultuous demonstration of the audience while the chorus sang the stately "Hymn of Liberty" at the close of the opera.

The great Russian nationalist Moussorgsky also was quick to record the trend of his times. In "Kowanchina" and "Boris Godounov," he used music to express the oppression of arbitrary rulers, the misery of the people and the beginnings of revolution. Although, theoretically, Moussorgsky was merely recounting historical episodes in the life of Russia, in the opera "Boris" with its scenes of hungry peasants crying for bread, the mobs in the forest, and arbitrary rule of Boris, there are the germs of revolutionary ideas.

We have already made brief reference to the importance of folk music. In schools where it has been effectively used European forms predominate. The great wealth of American folk music remains in the books and archives waiting to be used. No better material for the teaching of American ideals exists. Let us examine a few examples:

For several years before 1776, when it became apparent that the colonies were heading in the direction of war with the mother-country, patriotic Americans were approached to lend money for support of the Revolution. The situation, although on a much

smaller scale, was similar to one of our present war bond drives. Compare this song with "Any Bonds Today." It was written in 1768, by John Dickinson, to an old English tune by William Boyce:

Come join hand in hand, brave Americans all,
And rouse your bold hearts at fair Liberty's call;
No tyrannous acts shall suppress your just claim,
Or stain with dishonor America's name.

Chorus

In Freedom we're born and in Freedom we'll live,
Our purses are ready!
Steady, friends, steady!
Not as slaves, but as Freemen our money we'll give.

All our national heroes are honored in music. Of Lincoln, many torch processions of Republicans sang during the campaign of 1860:

Old Abe Lincoln came out of the wilderness,
Out of the wilderness, out of the wilderness,
Old Abe Lincoln came out of the wilderness,
Down in Illinois.

As each new section of the west was discovered and developed songs grew up to reflect its life and ideals. Observe, then, such songs as "Californ-i-ay," "Banks of the Sacramento," "Red River Valley," "Kentucky Moonshiner," "The Erie Canal," "Red Iron Ore," "The Dreary Black Hills," and "The Wide Mizzoura." It was only natural for these songs to reflect the morale of the people.

The expansion of our country westward created many social problems wherever the entrance or exit of the settlers affected the economics of a community. This song was sung immediately following the Civil War in and around Chicago:

The farmer comes to town,
With his wagon broken down;
Yes, the farmer is the man who feeds them all.
If you only look and see,
We think you will agree
That the farmer is the man who feeds them all.

Refrain

The farmer is the man
The farmer is the man
Buys on credit 'til the fall.
Then they take him by the hand
And lead him to the land
But the merchant is the man who gets it all.

In World War I, music again was called upon to serve. George M. Cohan and Irving Berlin did much

to keep military and civilian morale high. Some of these songs are plainly etched on American history. "Over There," "Johnny Get Your Gun," "Rose of No Man's Land," and "Oh! How I Hate to Get Up in the Morning," have been revived in recent times and still apply.

Military bands were a part of every triumph. John Philip Sousa, Ernestine Schumann-Heink and Elsie Janis all used music to keep the spirits of our soldiers high. Music sold war bonds, made people laugh and cry—whichever effect was desired. It did much to raise the morale here at home.

It is not our purpose to recount musical history for its own sake. The lessons of history can be applied today. As we come closer to modern times we approach a more highly mechanized society. With our scientific progress has come many new social problems. Composers, as all other people who create, are sensitive to happenings within their environment. They never fail to reveal it in their music. This war, for example, has already produced such compositions as: "Ballad for Americans," by Robinson-LaTouche; "Memorial to Lidice," by Martinu; "Symphony Number 7" (Leningrad), by Shostakovich; "Symphony of the Four Freedoms," by Bennett; and "In Memoriam of the Colored Soldiers Who Died for Democracy," by Still.

Many words have been spoken and written about the importance of morale in the national emergency. For the music teacher, his part in the building of morale bears re-study.

We have somehow come to the conclusion that by exposing people to music we automatically improve the morale. Permit people to escape from the realities of life, by losing themselves in beautiful music, we are told, and they return to the world elevated and motivated to greater efforts. History does not substantiate this theory.

Professor Hocking of the University of Chicago says that "the foundation of morale is knowledge and belief." By this definition, in war time, we may assume that a higher morale may be built on a deeper knowledge of what we are fighting for and the belief that it is a just cause. This would lead us to the conclusion that popular songs related to the war have a greater morale value than concert music presented on an art-for-art-sake basis. They supply, at least, a crude knowledge of what is going on and more obviously support our belief that right will prevail. This is an unfortunate conclusion. But, what does an art-for-art-sake approach have to offer? Doesn't it seem absurd for music teachers to continue using such an approach in teaching when morale depends on knowledge and belief? How much more deep and real is our belief in democracy when its story is enhanced by the emotional quality of a composition such as "Ballad for Americans"?

As we examine history, it becomes obvious that where music had a desirable function it lived. This is not to imply that all music had propaganda purposes. From the standpoint of this discussion, however, witness the morale value of the "Crusaders' Hymn," the "Marseillaise," the "Leningrad Symphony" of Shostakovich and "Memorial to Lidice," by Martinu. Witness, also, the words and music of a Christmas carol written years ago:

I heard the bells of Christmas day
The old familiar carols play
While soft and sweet the words repeat
Of "Peace on Earth, Good Will to Men."

And in despair I bowed my head
"There is no peace on earth," I said
"For hate is strong, and mocks the song
Of Peace on Earth, Good Will to Men."

Then pealed the bells more loud and clear
God is not dead, nor doth he fear
The wrong shall fail, the right prevail
With Peace on Earth, Good Will to Men.

How significant is this carol today? What is its morale value? Certainly, it is more important at present than some of the familiar carols. Its meaning brings hope and courage to thousands of people who are wondering about "peace on earth" during a Christmas at war.

Songs with words, of course, are easier to comprehend, but abstract music is often more moving emotionally. In the past we have been taught to "emote" to music without regard for its context and content. Actually, not even the art-for-art-sake musician appreciates a work in the abstract. Most often, he is attracted or repelled by a composition's form, instrumentation or melodic line. To him, these are definite things which he associates with particular musical compositions. How much more difficult is it for the layman to sit and listen to the abstract without even the technical aspects of the work to fall back on? This is not to say that the average listener cannot appreciate obvious melodies and rhythms. We are concerned, here, however, with building morale, and the appreciation of a beautiful tune doesn't necessarily motivate one to do or die.

In a democracy, people can be taught to understand the message of persuasion and propaganda which comes beautifully and painlessly in music. They can learn to analyze the emotional messages created by melody and rhythm. Through effective teaching, the citizen can learn that it is not the military march that is important, but the purpose for which it is being used. It is precisely for this reason that music teachers should concern themselves with function in music. It can easily be seen that the music of Palestrina

or Bach or Beethoven is today being used for social purposes which contradict the original purposes of the composer. This can be even better understood as we observe for what purposes Hitler uses Beethoven's "Eroica" as a "führer" symphony.

One cannot quarrel with the escape value of music. For many individuals, the solace and relaxation that comes with listening to music has been proved. Attendance at the concert hall or listening to recordings and the radio meets this need adequately. The function of the school, however, is to help equip people to face the realities of life. Music education in the public schools should help our

teachers attain this objective.

The music teacher, therefore, bears a special responsibility. Even in specialized groups, where the teaching of technics is imperative, the morale value of what he has to offer will rise in proportion to an understanding of the social implications of the knowledge presented. The resulting belief in our way of life, and our willingness to defend it, will come with this understanding. Thus the music teacher, along with all other teachers in the school, can help build a higher morale by developing a better understanding of the world in which he and the student live. In this way, he can fulfill his most natural function.

Visual and Other Aids

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Teachers of high school social studies should not neglect supplementary books as a means for enriching the curriculum. There are hundreds of good books relating to current social problems that are suitable for inclusion on the pupils' reading lists.

From my experience, reading done by the average high school pupil is largely limited to textbooks, and to readings for required book reports in English and perhaps a few other courses. The out-of-school reading of the average pupil seems to be limited to the comic sheets and sport pages of newspapers, and to magazine stories. A pupil of mine, who had started reading a popular non-fiction book for a report, came to me one day in bewilderment. "I can't understand what the author is driving at," she said, "because there isn't any plot." Upon questioning, I found that this girl (a senior) had read nothing in her life except the comic sheets and "stories," with the exception of her textbooks. Since this book was obviously neither a story nor a textbook, she was baffled by it. I cite this as an exceptional case, of course; but it does illustrate what a teacher may encounter.

It would seem highly desirable if we could start high school pupils reading more books of serious nature, with the hope that tastes will develop which will carry over into adult life. Such tastes will not develop, of course, just through increasing the amount of required reading. Pupils at the same time must be taught to *like* what they are reading.

This poses a problem which for many pupils will be insoluble. However, it is likely that the majority of pupils can be made to develop a certain taste for serious books, if the first books to be required are

wisely chosen and if the reading program is properly organized.

How should we choose collateral readings for social studies classes? I wish to suggest four criteria for choosing such books. There may be others of equal importance, but these occur to me at the moment.

1. *Books should deal with current social problems.* Historical novels, or historical works of non-fiction, will seem of much less importance to pupils than books about the world of today. Only when books having a setting in the past are capable of shedding a direct light on current affairs should pupils be burdened with them.

2. *Books should deal with problems vital to the continued existence of democratic society.* Too often teachers think it is important for a pupil to learn the details of how Podunk Center solved its sewage disposal problem, even though at that very moment fascism might be taking democracy by storm. And may I also suggest that the problems pupils need most to be thinking about are often not those indicated by the "felt needs" of the pupils. They are the broad problems of our entire society, which at first will seem to be of no immediate interest to pupils. It devolves upon the teacher to help pupils see how the problems of the whole society are really his problems too. I would suggest that we ought to require pupils to read books on such topics as the nature of fascism and communism, the unsolved economic problems of the world, racial antagonism, the causes of this war, the bases of a lasting peace, and so on.

3. *Books should be liberal in philosophy and*

should present challenging hypotheses for the solution of current problems. Pupils are being bombarded continually with conservative or reactionary points of view—from home, from the community, from newspapers, from magazines, and sometimes from other teachers. If the pupil is confronted with liberal doctrines and bold thinking his traditional beliefs will be challenged and his thinking aroused. Such a policy is not indoctrination; rather, it is an attempt to prevent the indoctrination that ordinarily occurs.

4. *Books should be popularly styled and adapted to the capacities of the pupils.* In choosing collateral readings, we should avoid other textbooks and books written by the textbook writers for supplementary purposes. Instead, choose books written by professional authors for circulation among the general public; and pay especial attention to books that have been best-sellers, since their popular appeal is already demonstrated. For their first contact with serious books, it is advisable to start pupils on short, simply-written books. Fortunately, there has been a number of books published during recent years which are from a hundred to two-hundred pages long. Let pupils go on to the longer books when they have discovered that serious nonfiction isn't so tough, after all.

The exact nature of the reading program must be worked out by individual teachers, but there are a few principles which should be kept in mind. For one thing, pupils should have careful guidance in their selection of books. I have known cases where the pupil chose for his first attempt at serious reading a book entirely too difficult, or on a topic without meaning or importance to the pupil. In such cases, the first impression is likely to be so bad that the pupil will be sickened of non-fiction reading forever after. The reading should be supervised so that if a pupil bogs down in a difficult part of the book the teacher will discuss the material with him and help him master the ideas involved.

Each year I visit the community libraries to which pupils have access and list all books which appear to meet in at least partial manner the criteria I have suggested. This list, together with books from the school library, is mimeographed and a copy given to each pupil. These mimeographed lists contain brief annotations describing the contents of the book, together with the author's name and title. The list is then discussed in class. Outstanding books are pointed out and interesting facts about the authors are related. This stimulates interest at the outset.

This article is completed with a list of popular, non-fiction books which are suitable for inclusion on a pupil's reading list. They are especially adapted to social studies courses of the eleventh and twelfth grades. This list is intended to be suggestive only,

since there are probably hundreds of other titles that could have been included. Teachers should at all times keep up with what is being published. I have found that the book review columns in the Sunday newspapers are very useful; but even more valuable are the reviews in some of the liberal magazines, such as *The New Republic*, *The Nation*, *Free World*, *Current History*, and so on.

Books near the end of the list are of considerable difficulty, and should be attempted only by pupils of unusual ability:

1. Stuart Chase, "When the War Ends" Series. Titles which have so far appeared are *The Road We Are Traveling*, *Goals for America*, and *Where's the Money Coming From?* Others are to follow.
2. Stuart Chase, *Rich Land, Poor Land*.
3. Wendell Willkie, *One World*.
4. Walter Lippmann, *U. S. Foreign Policy*.
5. Henry Wallace, *The Century of the Common Man*.
6. John Roy Carlson, *Under Cover*.
7. Michael Sayers and Albert Kahn, *Sabotage*.
8. Alan Griffin, *Freedom, American Style*.
9. Sidney and Beatrice Webb, *The Truth About Soviet Russia*.
10. Gregor Zeimer, *Education for Death*.
11. Hugh Buas, *The Japanese Enemy*.
12. Dorothy Thompson, *Refugees*.
13. Benjamin Stolberg, *The Story of the C.I.O.*
14. Thomas Minehan, *Boy and Girl Tramps of America*.
15. Langdon Post, *The Challenge of Housing*.
16. Carey McWilliams, *Factories in the Field*.
17. Carey McWilliams, *Brothers Under the Skin*.
18. Maurice Hindus, *Mother Russia*.
19. Foster Rhea Dulles, *The Road to Teheran*.
20. L.W. Armstrong, *We Too Are the People*.
21. Louis Adamic, *Dynamite*.
22. Norman Angell, *Let the People Know*.
23. Ellis Cowling, *Cooperatives in America*.
24. Julia E. Johnsen, *Socialization of Medicine*.
25. George Seldes, *Freedom of the Press*.
26. Rackham Holt, *George Washington Carver*.
27. George Soule, *A Planned Society*.
28. George Soule, *An Economic Constitution for Democracy*.
29. Pierre van Paassen, *The Forgotten Ally*.
30. Louis Adamic, *My Native Land*.
31. Konrad Heiden, *Der Fuehrer*.
32. Agnes Smedley, *Battle Hymn of China*.
33. Otto Zoff, *They Shall Inherit the Earth*.
34. Stuart Chase, *The Economy of Abundance*.
35. Stuart Chase, *Government in Business*.

36. Stuart Chase, *Idle Money, Idle Men*.
37. W. D. Herridge, *Which Kind of Revolution?*
38. Carl Dreher, *The Coming Showdown*.
39. James Burnham, *The Managerial Revolution*.
40. Harold Laski, *Reflections on the Revolution of Our Time*.

News and Comment

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THE CHANGING SHAPE OF EDUCATION

Should teachers in the classroom be partisans of the Streit, Culbertson, or other plan for world reorganization? Or should they stress, instead, what wise men declare to be the principles for democratic world organization and what appear to be the basic features of the postwar era to which a successful plan must conform? Should they present proposed plans chiefly as aids in thinking about these problems and counsel youth to let the choice of plans wait until the time arrives for them, meanwhile learning what are the bases for enduring, international cooperation and peace?

Educational Leadership for February took the view that an understanding of the problems and guiding principles was paramount just now. Most of the articles dealt with "Problems of Transition." Professor Ernest O. Melby of the University of Montana prepared the stage by marking out "The Major Problems of Transition." Chief among them he placed the problem of providing full employment.

Few sections of the globe will be free from the unemployment menace to order and security in the years after arms are laid down. To cope with it, we must make larger use of economic planning and rely less upon the muddling solutions of *laissez faire*. Government will have to expand its role. Many avenues for employment open up, from rehabilitating and retraining service men to rehousing and re-planning communities.

Another problem is that of assuring a stable world order through the use of effective international machinery. Moreover, the great loss of spiritual and moral values during the two decades following World War I must be made good if a new totalitarianism is not to emerge and if the ideals of democracy are to be genuine motivating forces.

As Professor Melby outlines the problems he suggests the part the teacher can play in developing essential attitudes, in setting forth the facts of the case, and in driving home to each citizen what the citizen's responsibilities are:

"What Shall We Salvage" is an article by S. J.

McLaughlin of Cornell College (Iowa) reporting a sampling of the opinions of nearly 500 air cadets, college students, youth in the army and war plants, parents, teachers, and others. Among the war-born innovations which should be continued by the secondary schools, according to this sampling, are: (1) Emphasis upon health and physical fitness. (2) Less textbook learning and more learning by way of actual experience and action. (3) General education aligned with contemporary life so that young citizens will be prepared to live in modern communities and to meet the requirements of modern living. Education should provide fewer "storage" courses and more functional material. (4) Vocational education as an integral part of the education of everyone on the secondary school level. On this point there was considerable variation of opinion, although all favored some kind of vocational training. (5) Courses need not always be a semester or a year in length and geared into fixed hours, units, and credits. Achievement is more important than hours spent, and courses may be weeks or years in length. "It seems that the assumption that *all* learning is divided into two semesters and that an educated youth is the product of a sequence of courses, credits, and time-clock periods has been given a severe bombing during the past two years." (6) The teaching of the shape of the postwar world and its problems and requirements is a necessity. Much attention should be given to parts of the world other than Western Europe. (7) Courses focused on a task or problem and not on a traditional body of subject matter are desirable. Cadets are impressed by the "reality of their work in which necessary science, mathematics, economics, practical arts, etc., are focused on the functional result. . . ." (8) Guidance was stressed as an all-important need. (9) Many short courses are essential, such as first aid, home nursing, and consumer buying.

James E. Mendenhall, of the OPA, suggested many problems which should be discussed in communities, probably under school leadership. His article on "Broadening Our Horizons" listed them

and gave for each the pertinent questions that must be answered. Other articles contribute much to an understanding of the task we face.

POPULATION PROBLEMS

From our February issue it may be recalled that C. Hartley Grattan's article in *Harper's Magazine*, which discussed mass migration from Europe as a cure for some of its postwar problems, expressed doubt that the sparsely settled regions of the world are capable of supporting many more people. In fact, Mr. Grattan was of the opinion that few if any fertile regions now remain unused. Karl Sax, a Harvard Professor of Botany, confirms that opinion in an article in *The Scientific Monthly* for January on "Population Problems of a New World Order."

Dr. Sax says that the population of the earth is already at its optimum or perhaps beyond it, in terms of ability to support the population on a decent plane of living. It takes about two and a half acres of arable land "to provide a human being with essential food, clothing, and other necessities." Already only two acres of arable land per person are available, since there are but four billion arable acres for the two billion human inhabitants.

The average density of population for the earth is forty per square mile, or slightly less than the average density of population in the United States. If so advanced a nation as the United States contains many human beings who exist on a bare subsistence level or below, what may be expected elsewhere? Asia, with at least half the world's population, presents a seemingly hopeless problem. She has not the acreage to supply her hundreds of millions with adequate necessities. Can nations such as ours supply the needs of all their own peoples and at the same time make up the deficits in Asia and elsewhere?

The earth's human population doubled in the last century and seems to be doubling again in this century. Dr. Sax doubts that such an increase can be adequately provided for, in the present state of knowledge, availability of arable soil, and the inevitable spread of soil erosion and loss of fertility. It is necessary that human beings practice birth control in order to keep the population pressure down.

Dr. Sax discussed many problems incidental to this main theme. His remarks, as a trained and expert student and observer, merit close attention. They are within the grasp of older high school students.

A factual supplement to Dr. Sax's article is the statement of the past, present, and future trends of world population which is given in *Fortune* for February ("Two Billion People: A Portfolio Showing the Population of the World, Now and in

1970"). The graphs and maps accompanying the article are highly instructive.

The graphs and their explanation reveal the present population patterns of the earth; the industrial and non-industrial, the crowded and underpopulated regions; the population trends by age groups in France, England and Wales, Italy, Germany, Japan, Russia, India, and the United States; and the principal lines of migration in the Old World. A brief bibliography is appended.

Because accurate figures are lacking, little could be said about China. It seems, now, that the countries mentioned, except Russia and India, will have a rapidly aging population and a shrinking base of youth. Russia, apparently, will become the leading nation, with a quarter-billion population, a vast industry, and much space. Her expansion will be greater in her Asiatic than in her European sections. China and India are unpredictable, although evidence points to the development of China as a great power. The United States, if it holds its own, will shrink somewhat in comparison.

This article, although speculative, does suggest some of the features of the map of tomorrow and is in so far an orienting guide.

Professor Alzada Comstock of Mount Holyoke College, in *Current History* for February, discussed the postwar immigration problem of Canada and Australia ("Migrations and the Great Dominions"). It is also her opinion that these continents cannot support large populations in the nearer future and are not likely to experience great immigration movements. Her account draws attention to some of the recent plans proposed for increasing the population of these dominions.

PATENTS AND MONOPOLY

There is little evidence, as yet, that cartels will be controlled or that the abuse of patents will be terminated. Few individual inventors any longer control patents. Corporations own the vast majority of patents and use them to keep others from entering the field. They establish a bottleneck, by means of the patent control, which enables them to ration production, quality, and prices in order to garner the largest profits.

Patent pools set up by corporations in different countries have at times required companies to act contrary to the interests of their own country. Standard Oil has been denounced for aiding I. G. Farben and therefore Germany; American have been constrained to see to it that the Japanese got goods embargoed by Britain. Cartels, patents, and the stifling monopolies which they breed threaten to destroy free enterprise.

Thurman Arnold, we know, began a crusade

against them under the Sherman Act. The Department of Justice has suits before the courts. Measures to break the abuses of patents by such devices as limiting the right of the inventor to royalties only, reducing the life of most patents, and government research to make inventions which shall be free to all, are proposed. Congressional committees have sufficient evidence for framing legislation.

A summary of the problem is made in *The New Republic* for February 14 by a Washington correspondent, Robert Reuben ("Patents—Weapon of Monopoly"). It is supplemented by a prefatory editorial on "The Threat to Democracy."

The Washington correspondent of *The Nation*, I. F. Stone, discussed the same matter in the issue for February 12 in his letter on "The Cartel Cancer." His few examples of the evidence set forth in the Kilgore Committee's report on "Economic and Political Aspects of International Cartels" suggest the menace of the cartel octopus. Suits by the Anti-Trust Division of the Department of Justice and reports of investigating committees are not likely to curb this threat of economic royalists to the common welfare unless supported by an informed, aroused public opinion.

NEW CARIBBEAN

A surprising feature of this war was the inability of the British, French, and Dutch to save large portions of their Asiatic possessions from the clutches of the aggressor. What was saved has been due largely to the efforts of others, principally the United States. The British and Dutch have been fearful of Axis attack upon their Caribbean colonies. That they were not able, unaided, to safeguard those possessions is indicated by the building of at least a dozen bases on British and Dutch territory by the United States. The interest which the United States has in safeguarding the Caribbean is, of course, greater than that of any other great power.

In the many places in the Caribbean where the Americans have gone to establish bases their money, men, equipment, and methods have greatly affected local life. Local labor was needed and local wage rates rose, although a ceiling was established. Business and entertainment prospered, under American demand. Americans in turn discovered that the British, Dutch, and French do not possess the prejudice against Negroes which is common in the United States, and that men of Negro blood made able public servants, judges, and governing officials.

The entrance of Americans made problems. To deal with them an Anglo-American Caribbean Commission was established, whose work is transforming colonial administration. The Caribbean, without design, has become an experiment station for tomorrow's colonial administration everywhere.

The fact that the might of non-colonial powers like China and the United States may be needed to protect British or Dutch or other colonies is itself revolutionizing. The Caribbean Commission found itself working in the interest of the colony itself and in terms of world needs rather than merely in the interests of the English or Dutch. It is likely that what is being learned in the Caribbean will affect the handling of colonial problems elsewhere, after the war.

This story is related in *Fortune* for February, in the article on "Caribbean Laboratory." The accompanying detailed map of the Caribbean and the chart showing every Caribbean foreign possession supply much, little-known information.

DISCOVERY OF THE AMAZON

Philately offers its devotees treasures of knowledge from everywhere. Albert F. Kunze, soldier, lawyer, and now head of the Philatelic Section of the Pan American Union, was attracted to the early history of the Amazon by the commemorative stamps issued last year by Brazil, Ecuador, and Peru in honor of the quadricentennial of the discovery of the river in 1542.

Mr. Kunze's interesting recital, in the January number of *The Scientific Monthly*, of the early explorations ("The Amazon—Has It Been Fully Discovered?") is largely an account of Orellana's heart-breaking journey of eighteen months from the headwaters of the Amazon to the sea, 3000 miles away. His article pictures enlargements of eleven of the commemorative stamps. It tells the story of the circumstances which led the brothers Pizarro in Peru to send an expedition eastward in 1541 in search of El Dorado. High school youth will enjoy this story which gives substance to the necessarily brief references in their textbooks to the discovery of the Amazon and the indomitable and maligned Orellana.

THE NEGRO IN THE NORTH

"The Negro in the North During Wartime" was the subject of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* for January. Especial attention was given to the status of the Negro in Chicago, New York, and Detroit as examples of northern urban centers, for it is in the cities of the northeast that the overwhelming majority of northern Negroes dwell. To illustrate a border city, the situation in Baltimore was also described.

These "Profiles" provide a clear-cut picture of the complex elements of the Negro problem, especially as it has evolved since World War I. Dr. L. D. Reddick, editor of this issue of *The Journal* and a member of the staffs of the New York Public Library and the College of the City of New York, summarized

"What the Northern Negro Thinks About Democracy." His observations are the result of much experience with the Negro problem. A select but broad bibliography concludes the entire discussion.

REFERENCES FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

As in other years, *The School Review* for February presented "Selected References on Secondary-School Instruction." Robert E. Keohane of the University of Chicago listed nearly fifty articles and books on "The Social Studies" and Edith P. Parker, a colleague, gave about thirty additional references on "Geography." All references are to materials published in 1942-43 and each is accompanied by a brief descriptive comment.

Earlier in this issue, Charles H. Judd, formerly chairman of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, discussed the striking implication for schools in the publication of a school book by a committee of a state legislature: *The American Story of Industrial and Labor Relations*, published by the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions.

Teachers are at times worried about teaching controversial issues. This book on the labor problem does not hesitate to take sides. Legislators, apparently, want pupils informed about controversial problems which citizens face. Hence, Dr. Judd believes this event is of great significance.

Educators ought to be greatly encouraged by a book that is straight-forward in the treatment of social problems which unquestionably should be dealt with on the basis of full knowledge of the facts. They ought to rejoice that civilization has reached the stage where timidity in dealing with such problems is seen to be unnecessary, where public leaders are bold in their frank discussion of these problems. . . .

Dr. Judd is of the opinion that teachers' associations should prepare and be responsible for similar studies of citizenship problems, and not leave the burden to individual teachers. The legislators, by this book, set a seal of approval not lightly to be dismissed by school boards. His article, called "The Unique Origin of a Textbook," expresses the hope that teachers and publishers alike will have greater security in preparing and using teaching materials dealing with live issues of the day.

Dr. Judd gave a brief summary of the content of *The American Story of Industrial and Labor Relations* which social studies teachers will want to note.

TEACHING AIDS

A result of last summer's activity in the New York workshop for social studies teachers is an excellent

collection of material culled from textbooks and other sources for use in brightening and vivifying class work. Parts I and II of the report presenting this material appeared in *High Points* for December and January ("Vital Quotations and Excerpts for History Classes"). The many scores of striking expressions, stories, arresting statements and quotations form a permanent store for teachers of history, whether it is of the United States or of other nations.

TRENDS IN TEACHING CITIZENSHIP

In *The Elementary School Journal* for February Grace E. Storm of the University of Chicago reported the "Recent Trends in the Teaching of Citizenship." Professor Storm examined more than a score of city and state courses of study and revisions and supplements that appeared since 1941. Although her interest was in the elementary field, the report is of value to teachers in secondary schools.

Earlier in the issue, on page 313, comment is made about the fact that fascists may know a great deal about democracy while those who live democratically may be able to answer few questions about it. That the courses of study make a distinction "between teaching about democracy and teaching democratic behavior" is evident in Professor Storm's report.

The emphasis is upon behavior and not upon knowledge. Schools are encouraged to get away from classroom dictatorships and to provide democratic situations. The courses of study stress democratic techniques and experiences for the classroom. Group discussions and planning are regarded as of the highest importance as activities for teaching democratic living. Hardly less important is child participation in the setting up of the rules which all are to follow in school situations. Here the school council can be an invaluable agency.

Another important phase of civic training that is stressed in the courses of study is symbolism or the cultivation of emotionalized attitudes. Pageantry, dramatics, literature, songs, and ritual are outstanding means for emotionalizing democracy. The observance and celebration of holidays have not lost any values in promoting love of and faith in democracy, nor has the biography of our great men and women diminished in usefulness to that end. A more recent trend, at least in emphasis, is the fostering of "intercultural-mindedness or of developing sympathy, friendliness, and right attitudes toward other nations and other races. . . ."

It is evident that schools are seeking out democratic disciplines and are striving more than ever to give children practice in democratic behavior. At the end of her article Professor Storm lists the courses of study which she examined.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD H. McFEELY

The George School, George School, Pennsylvania

The Growth of American Thought. By Merle Curti. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943. Pp. xvii, 848. \$5.00.

With the publication of *The Growth of American Thought*, Professor Curti fills an important gap in American scholarship that is long past due. Recognizing that students of American history have been concerned too long with political, military, economic, and social activities and institutions, the author undertakes—and succeeds admirably in this monumental task—a comprehensive study of American intellectual history.

While some attention to the development of American ideas and cultural history may be discovered in the writings of Evarts B. Greene, Frederick J. Turner, Edward Channing, Herbert E. Bolton, and the Beards, their works lack the detailed emphasis displayed by Curti. After the First World War, further contributions such as the *Cambridge History of American Literature* and the *History of American Life*, edited by Fox and Schlesinger, greatly enriched our knowledge of America's intellectual heritage. Vernon L. Parrington, too, in his *Main Currents in American Thought* (1927, 1930), pioneered in relating the literary works of American men of letters to changing social, economic, and cultural conditions, but his work was of necessity limited in scope and significance.

Nor are we lacking, in the field of systematized thought, in histories of American philosophy, education, politics, religion and theology, with a forthcoming history of American economic thought by Dorfamn. But none of these historians have attempted the job of correlating, into a synthesized whole and with detailed thoroughness, this un-leavened mass of source material related to our intellectual life.

It is at this point where Curti's work differs from that of his predecessors. From many untapped sources he gets to the very roots of American thought. He examines "formal treatises of theologians, philosophers, scientists and social scientists; autobiographies and letters of scholars . . . ; novels, tales, poems, essays, critical reviews in periodicals; records of the agencies of intellectual life, schools, colleges, foundations, learned societies, publishing houses, newspapers; collections of folklore, folk songs, ballads, and proverbs; literature written and published for the masses—these are only some of the materials

available." Out of this rich store the author discovers the moods, the social attitudes and relationships and the values which men and women have cherished on American soil—in short, he has written a social history of American thought.

The pattern of this study is organized in "chronological periods according to ideas which may be thought of as characteristic of the successive eras of that history." Lack of space prevents giving an exhaustive account of this work, nevertheless broad implications may be noted. As Curti develops his thesis, one quickly discerns that the history of American thought is in reality a slow and sometimes painful struggle for the realization of a liberal ideal—social democracy for the advancement of the common man. In this march of democracy Americans display a resiliency of mind in adapting thought and knowledge to a new physical and social environment. As new problems are presented, they develop changing attitudes and habits of living.

Even during colonial times, the pioneers showed a unity of spirit and action in discarding old world ideas. Thus the concept of a titled aristocracy, buttressed by the laws of primogeniture and entailed estates, were swept aside. Abundant land permitted all to become freeholders. In this struggle to move forward the masses encountered the reaction of privileged groups and vested interests. The ideas of the Enlightenment were bitterly assailed when transmitted to the new world—ideas which were essentially a protest against the traditional reliance of authority in religious and secular life and which assumed the original dignity and worth of all men.

Though the masses won an extension of suffrage and a relaxation of imprisonment for debt, the time was not yet ripe for free public schools and other cultural privileges. It was not until the opening and the development of the frontier that an accompanying advance was made in political and social democracy. With this development, however, came an urbanized and a mechanized society in which the country witnessed the growth of individualism in capitalistic enterprise and a new order of business monopoly. Although gigantic fortunes were made through native shrewdness and innate strength, the philosophy of acquisitive materialism was extremely narrow in its social outlook because it identified exploitation with progress. During this period and after, some beginnings were made toward the modification of

laissez faire, by substituting the public interest for vested privilege. The common man was also greatly aided with the advance of science, which was harnessed for his physical comfort and well-being.

While science released men from the burdens of labor on the one hand, it jolted the traditional religious beliefs of the orthodox on the other. The Darwinian theory of evolution, the new astronomy, physics, geology and biology, and the new developments in comparative religion, all these were concepts which slowly undermined the forces of supernaturalism. For a time the conflict between science and religion raged fiercely. While slowly reconciled, the struggle, nevertheless, died as men gained broader perspectives and other more pressing problems occupied their minds. Such conflicts of ideas were quite common to the American scene.

Shortly after the beginning of the new century, we embarked upon a great crusade for liberty in the First World War, after which followed a brief period of economic prosperity. This period may also be characterized by a decline of the spirit of internationalism and a cynical disillusionment, especially on the part of the younger generation. Following this brief period of economic prosperity, came the economic collapse, which led to some questioning of the basic soundness of our social and economic structure. Conditions forced a readjustment of old values. The new experiment embodied the idea of a balanced economy in which government sought to maintain within the framework of capitalism an equilibrium between conflicting economic and social interests.

Finally, Curti detects a gradual trend, both in Europe and the United States, of collective action toward a centralized and socialized state in which political, social and economic institutions are closely integrated and where the functions of the state are being enlarged in the interest of the public welfare.

Curti's work is a living interpretation of, and a unique contribution to our cultural history. He possesses wide historical and contemporary knowledge and penetrating insight. The reader will discover almost an encyclopedic array of facts, well weighed and coordinated. Curti charts the trends in American thought; he points out the forces which have influenced the pendulum of American ideas toward liberalism or reaction. More than any other writer he notes many minor contributions which have aided in directing the stream of social thought in American life. For enrichment of background and for a fuller understanding of American democracy, Curti's work stands out as a beacon light for every progressive teacher of American history and government.

JOSEPH C. BAUMGARTNER

Lincoln High School
Cleveland, Ohio

The War Governors in the American Revolution. By Margaret Burnham MacMillan. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 309. \$3.50.

This monograph describes the activities of the state governors during the Revolution. The general impression has been that the executive power during the early period of statehood was weak and ineffective due to the wide acceptance of the theory of legislative supremacy. Such, however, was not always the case as this study shows very clearly.

The abundance of material made it impossible for the author to make a detailed study of the executives in all of the thirteen states. She, therefore, did the most intensive work on the New Jersey governorship and used materials from the other states for purposes of pointing out the differences and similarities of conditions.

The principal topics covered in this study are: the transition from the control of the provincial governor to that of the revolutionary executive, the constitutional and legal status of the governor's office, the problems of state administration during the Revolution, the relations of the governor with Congress and the Continental army leaders, the services of the governors as leaders of the state militia, their political and legislative obligations, and finally, a summary of their contributions to the American cause.

The outstanding executives were Trumbull of Connecticut, Clinton of New York, Livingstone of New Jersey, and Rutledge of South Carolina. The governors of several other states made noteworthy contributions in spite of constitutional limitations, distance from the center of activities, lack of economic means on the part of their states, and their own personal limitations.

The governors performed outstanding services in furnishing supplies for the continental armies, in keeping up the morale of their own states, in acting as agents for the Congress and in their loyal support of General Washington.

This is an important contribution to the history of the Revolution and will prove invaluable for teachers who are seeking new materials on this period.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School, Pennsylvania

United We Stand: The Peoples of the United Nations. By Basil Mathews. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1943. Pp. xiii, 366. Illustrated. \$2.50.

This book is the sort of book that social studies teachers, as well as those who wish to consider them-

selves well-informed on current events and current issues, have been looking for.

Beginning with a description of the sailing of a convoy fleet made up of boats of the United Nations and made possible by the cooperation of the United Nations, the author emphasizes the need for cooperation for peace in the post-war era. Then, taking each of the United Nations in turn, Dr. Mathews, an Oxford graduate and former newspaper man, describes in a vigorous prose the historical background, the present state of development and the potentialities in a global world of the nation being discussed.

Three chapters each are devoted to the Soviet Union, China, the British Commonwealth of Nations, and the Americas. The discussions of the U.S.S.R. and China alone are adequate reasons for owning this book. After reading the broad outlines of the Russian plan for internal development as described by Dr. Mathews, the recent headlines about Joseph Stalin giving independence to seventeen soviet states can be understood either to have been a further development toward the destiny of these states or a means of securing additional seats at the peace table paralleling the additional seats that will be occupied by the individual members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. The discussion of China's recent past history is sketched clearly and is sufficiently adequate though necessarily brief. The presentation of the purposes of the leavening groups within each nation is particularly useful to us today in our need for understanding the rapidly changing world around us and for our increasingly great need to evaluate plans for world organization to insure a satisfactory peace for us and other citizens of the globe.

After the Soviet Union, China, and the British Commonwealth of Nations, the occupied nations are discussed. This is followed by a chapter describing the overseas empires of Belgium, France, and the Netherlands. The reason for the growth of these empires, their administration, and participation in today's war world are discussed fairly. No place in the book is partisanship evidenced. *United We Stand* is a masterly piece of reporting.

After the discussion of Asia, Europe, and Africa the "Tangled Skein" of their relationships today is described, their cooperative work, their activities in the "underground" or the "Third Front," and the probability of their continued amicable relationships after the war pressure has ceased.

The development of the United States as a nation is sketched clearly and interestingly including her gradual rise to a world power; and the relationship between the part recognized but not always publicized, according to Dr. Mathews, that the British Navy played in protecting our Atlantic Coast, backing up our Monroe Doctrine, and, it is claimed—

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actually initiating it by suggestion. The Latin American countries are not omitted but are not discussed as fully as are most of the European countries.

A finger is pointed repeatedly to the awakening and rise of the common man, his recognition of his rights, his purpose to obtain them, and his fellow feeling with other "common men." Education is indicated again and again as a chief tool in bringing about these democratic rights. The parts that schools and education have played in national development, in anti-nazi resistance, and in providing the road and the gateway to the "good life" is sufficient to give any school-teacher cause to think. And to give the American public cause to ponder its present neglect of the public schools. Here is one lesson for America to learn. The author points out, also, the fact that if America would be heard at the peace table when international relations and minority group problems are discussed, she must, first, solve her Negro problem at home. Many of the United Nations peoples have colored skins and in so far as we fail to accept equality for the Negro in America so far is that failure a stumbling block in our relations with other racial groups in the world community.

The following paragraph indicates the spirit of this book:

As in this book we have entered one by one

into the lives of these nations, the majesty of the commitment that springs from allegiance to that document [The Atlantic Charter] has become more and more stirring to the imagination. More than half the human race now stands behind the document, over a thousand million human beings. The mind cannot grasp the thought of that multitude of peoples of many nations and different races. One thing, however, can be grasped, which is elemental in its simplicity but of unfathomable significance. The mass is made up of individuals. Each is a person. All are faulty, blundering humans, sensitive to suffering, desirous of life, liberty and happiness, attached to children or to parents, to comrades and friends, and with aspirations, however elementary and fitful, after the beauty and truth and the good life.

United We Stand is a book that every social studies teacher will find useful. It presents a picture, at times from its earnestness, approaching emotional appeal. After reading it, you can classify this book as a "worthwhile experience."

GRACE CROYLE HANKINS

Woodrow Wilson High School
Camden, New Jersey

Total War: The Economic Theory of a War Economy. By John Burnham. Boston, Massachusetts: The Meador Press, 1943. Pp. 339. \$2.00.

Total War: The Economic Theory of a War Economy, by an economist who has served with a major war agency in Washington since 1941, proposes the reorganization of the economic life of this country to the end that the real 1941 national income would double within five years. Dr. Burnham's plan calls for the complete regimentation of every phase of American economic life under a government agency to be called the War Production Authority at the head of which would be a single Chief Administrator, who would be subject only to the Congress and the President.

The plan envisages the increase of war goods by many methods. All industries not producing essential war materials would be closed for the duration and their labor and capital would be commandeered for the purposes of war production. The advantages of large scale production would be gained by the compulsory merging of smaller units of industry and by the introduction of uniform methods of accounting.

The labor supply would be increased greatly by requiring housewives and other hitherto unemployed non-farm women to register for employment in essential industries. High school students would have their traditional academic careers interrupted by measures which would force them into war industry

via a brief and highly specialized mechanical training at the plants of essential war industries. Other additions to the labor supply would come through the freeing of large numbers of farm workers for employment in war industries by the application of large-scale production methods in agriculture.

The speed of manufacturing would be increased by a more continuous use of available factory space so that all essential factories would run twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. Reduction of the working shift from eight to six or even five hours is recommended as a measure to increase factory productivity. Four shifts of five hours each and one shift of four hours is recommended as more productive than three eight hour shifts. It is desirable, Dr. Burnham believes, to have more people working fewer hours, than to have fewer people working more hours. If two shifts work four hours each, they can produce considerably more than one shift working eight hours.

Throughout this volume Dr. Burnham advocates measures so drastic and so totalitarian in nature that it is to be doubted if they would ever be practical in a democratic America even in time of great national stress. He recommends that state and local regulatory agencies be deprived of all power for the duration of the war, that the powers of the courts to check or interfere with the administrators of national mobilization should be withdrawn, and that Congress should be made a one chamber legislature. He strikes at what seems to be a vital organ of American liberties when he proposes that no metropolitan area should be allowed to have more than one newspaper and that only one edition of this paper should appear each day. Freedom of the press would be a war casualty, and this would be tragic in a nation fighting for the Four Freedoms. Perhaps the most damaging weakness of this book is the admitted unconcern of the author with the problems of post-war economic demobilization. By following Dr. Burnham's plan it might be possible to win the war and yet lose much that we had dearly won by permitting an economic collapse of gigantic proportions in the post-war period.

HUGH W. HENEY

Der Fuehrer. By Konrad Heiden. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1944. Pp. viii, 788. \$3.00.

Teachers and other readers will find in this account of Hitler a long, at times somewhat scrambled, but intensely interesting narrative of the Fuehrer's rise to power. The underlying philosophy of world domination upon which the nazis, Hitler in particular, have based their programs of action is clearly explained. The story of the birth and youth of Hitler, of his rise to power, and of his plans for the use of this power are told with a fascinating clarity.

Are you making Full Use of these New Texts?

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Our Latin American Neighbors

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Herein is also found, in part at least, the life stories of some of Hitler's closest associates—Roehm, Hess, Goering, Rosenberg and Goebels, Himmler—as well as some of the lesser lights of the German nazi party. The book also throws a great deal of light on some of the less known events in the recent history of the German nation.

Heiden carefully analyzes Hitler's strength and weaknesses. The source of Hitler's strength seems to lie in his complete acceptance of the program of world domination and his ability to identify with and appeal to the common mind with this program. The author traces these ideas of world power to the "Protocols of the Wise Men of Zion" which Alfred Rosenberg brought out of Russia when he was forced to flee before the Bolshevik revolutionists, and which came into Hitler's possession sometime later. Hitler's weaknesses arise from many sources, among them his failures at school and as an artist, his dislike of hard work, and his timidity in certain situations. The author strives for objectivity in this analysis and is able to make the reader see the reasons why Hitler came to dominate Germany in spite of his humble origins and the opposition he met on his rise to power.

The author, a German and the son of a trade union

official, has followed Hitler's life and activities for over two decades. He first heard Hitler's voice in a Munich beer hall. Heiden, then a student at the University of Munich, led a group of students in protest against the march of the Brown Shirts who had by then, begun to hold parades in the streets. In 1923 he became a staff member of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* and was given the special assignment of covering the National Socialist movement in Munich. He is credited with coining the term "nazi." Heiden witnessed the nazi beerhall Putsch, and later saw Hitler and other nazi leaders imprisoned in Landsberg prison. From then on he followed the nazi movement, watching its rise to the dominant position it held when Hitler became Chancellor in 1933. In that year the author was driven to under-cover by the Gestapo, and he was forced to flee to France in 1935. After the Fall of France, he came to America where he has continued his fight against nazism through his writing in books and magazines.

Nowhere else will teachers find such interesting and valuable materials gathered together in one place with which they can enrich their own and their students' understanding of Hitler and the movement of which he is the leader. The book is carefully and thoroughly indexed which adds greatly to its use-

fulness as a reference source. It is to be highly recommended for use by teachers whose work includes the study of Germany between the wars.

R. H. McF.

Studies in the History of the English Feudal Barony.

By Sidney Painter. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1943. Pp. xiv, 211. \$2.00.

Mr. Painter dedicates this volume, with justice, to that great teacher, Sydney Mitchell of Yale. As Mr. Mitchell begins his seminar with the question: "Well, what was a manor?" so Mr. Painter begins his study with the implied question: "Well, what was a barony?" To answer the question, he has gone to the Pipe Rolls, Curia Regis Rolls, Inquisitions, and all the other sources, and to those studies of Professor F. M. Stanton, Mr. N. Denholm-Young, and Miss Helena Chew which deal with portions of his subject. Mr. Painter's book gives us all the answers as far as they are known.

The barons and their baronies have usually been treated (all too simply) as engaged in a constant struggle with the Crown to decrease the power of the central government. This is to ignore the very vital part they played in administration, in fluctuating but continuous cooperation with the king's agents. It also ignores the plain fact of the central reason for the existence of feudalism proper, the need of the king for adequate military forces which until the twelfth century could only be supplied by military service based on tenure.

Even before the first century of English feudalism (1066-1166) had ended, the barons had whittled down their obligations, the devices of scutage and fines hastening the change from tenural to a money economy but never adequately fulfilling the king's military needs. Mr. Painter shows that an economic reason for the barons' unwillingness to contribute the old quota of knights lay in the increase in cost of equipment, due partly to more elaborate armor and partly to the general rise in prices of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. This same rise in prices brought about the great increase in labor services on the manors to save the payment of the higher wages. This trend was reversed in the fourteenth century, not however, solely because of the Black Death, and the disappearance of serfdom followed, perhaps more an economic change than the great triumph of human freedom which we like to think it.

Mr. Painter emphasizes the importance of the revenues from relief and from the wardship and marriage rights of the lords, and shows of how little value were the three classical aids. Furthermore in his chapters on manorial resources and baronial income, he shows that the value of the barony depended mainly on the income from the scattered demesne manors. He has interesting statistics of a large number of baronies over the 250 year period after Domes-

day, which indicate that the value of the estates tripled in this period although there was little actual change in the silver content of the coinage. This whole topic of the value of money needs a clarification which perhaps the Beveridge studies will supply.

The central military feudal idea began to fade in the twelfth century and feudalism itself died in the first part of the fourteenth century, when the king was compelled to hire even his cavalry. By this time the relations of any lord with his tenants had become primarily financial. The feudal barons had become, and rich newcomers had achieved the position of, great landholders with special privileges—what Mr. Painter calls the Parliamentary barons. The barony as territorial or administrative unit disappeared. As the king hired mercenaries or paid civil servants, the new magnates hired retainers, and we move into the unstable era between the end of the first part of the Hundred Years' War and the end of the War of the Roses, when the existence of large numbers of discharged soldiers provided leaders for Peasants' revolutions and trigger-men for ambitious nobles.

One would like to know whether the end of formal feudalism may be connected with the emergence of justices of the peace, as Mr. Painter connects it with the development of Parliament. I can only mention the admirable treatment of administration and justice, and of many other topics. Many monographs of this sort become studies of a frozen static condition, but Mr. Painter has preserved admirably a dynamic outlook.

It is very good news that Mr. Painter is working on a history of England during John's reign. A mingling of the sound scholarship and judgment of this study with the delightful narrative style of his *History of William Marshall* should make an excellent book.

COURTENAY HEMENWAY

The Choate School

Wallingford, Connecticut

Legends of the United Nations. By Frances Frost. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1943. Pp. ix, 323. \$2.50.

While the seeds of cynicism are being sown in current literature for adults, there are still hopes for the future of the world if our children can be spared the pitfalls of confusion and pessimism with which they, at their period of immaturity, have not as yet become as intimate as have their elders. Not only those who work with children but authors, likewise who write for them have within their grasp the instruments for building up a wholesome, sane outlook on life and the world, and the development of an unprejudiced approach to the problems which will confront youth later on in its maturity.

A step toward such a desirable goal has been

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made by Frances Frost, author of *Legends of the United Nations*. Her collection of classical stories is taken from the folklore of the nations now united in a great world conflict. They have been selected on the basis of merit alone; without prejudice in regard to race, creed, or color. Even the devil is given his just dues as may be gleaned from "The Protection of the Devil," a story of Brazil. The moral story occurs many times in the book. The emphasis on the moral phase, however, does not become tedious or burdensome; yet, the elements of mercy, justice, and truth shine through crystal clear. One finds in every clime those who have maintained the right from ages long past.

Many of our own ideas and explanations of human behavior and natural phenomena find their counterpart in the tales of other peoples. Every child has heard the expression regarding the weather: "Red at night, sailor's delight," but how many know its origin? Or, how many know how the Indians came into possession of tobacco for their peace pipes? The answers are found in the Canadian stories "The Boy of the Red Twilight Sky," and "The Tobacco Fairy from the Blue Hills."

Miss Frost covers the woes of the world but out of her book, too, like the good fairy from Pandora's box, comes the antidote for all grief and sorrow in the smiles and laughter contained in her humorous

yarns, especially, in one of our own country's tall stories, that of "Paul Bunyan" told here uproariously in the author's own style. No child, nor adult for that matter, should miss this choice morsel of wit.

The book includes seventeen different groups of stories, originating in as many different languages, but grief is as deep and poignant in the heart of an aborigine as in the heart of one's best friend; and a sense of humour and a good laugh are the same in any language.

Miss Frost has made no small contribution to the welfare and mental growth of our children in collecting and retelling these tales from all over the world, retelling them in a modern style designed to captivate the listener. Boys and girls of eight, nine, and ten years of age ask for more of them. The book is a definite step in bridging the gap of misunderstanding and apprehension which inevitably must be overcome in the world of tomorrow.

Social studies teachers in the middle grades will find *Legends of the United Nations* a source of stimulation in building up the background of their work in dealing with the peoples of any part of the world.

MABEL O. ZIMMERMAN

Central High School
Woodbury, New Jersey

The Origins and Background of the Second World War. By C. Grove Haines and Ross J. S. Hoffman. New York: Oxford University Press, 1943. Pp. 659. \$3.25.

Teachers in secondary schools, faced with the problem of helping their pupils gain an intelligent understanding of the present world conflict, will find this book a very helpful addition to the growing field of materials on this topic. It is well written, accurate in detail, and interesting to boys and girls who often find history books quite dry and lacking in dramatic appeal.

The authors make no pretense at having presented an exhaustive study of the backgrounds of World War II in this book, although they obviously draw upon an extensive study and knowledge of the subject. But the book goes a long way toward clarifying the complex issues out of which the conflict grew.

The fundamental basis of the conflict between democracy and totalitarianism is clearly set forth and should help pupils and other readers to understand the origins of the war which antedate the German attack on Warsaw in 1939. Likewise the economic, political, and social forces which underly this world conflagration are analyzed to show their relationships and effect. The whole book gives a clear over-all view of the past decades through which the seeds of the present catastrophic events were sprouting.

In the estimation of this reviewer, one of the great values of this book is its efforts to show the responsibility for this conflict which must be borne by all of the great nations of the world. Too often the conditions of the past two decades, and the attitudes and activities of these great nations which led inevitably to the final open break in 1939 are lost sight of and we resort to the familiar "scape goat" technique of blaming the war on only one side. A book like this offers a healthful antidote.

The value of the book is further enhanced by some excellent maps, a good bibliography, and a very complete index.

R. H. McF.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

On the Threshold of World Order. By Vera Micheles Dean. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1944. Pp. 96. 25 cents.

No. 44 in the *Headline Series* of the Foreign Policy Association. It is written by an outstanding student of the problems of the modern world and is a welcome addition to the excellent materials already published by the Foreign Policy Association.

The Reichstag Election of March 5, 1933. By Ralph H. Lutz and Pearle E. Quinn. Stanford Univer-

sity Press, Stanford University, California, 1943. 50 cents.

A survey of the 1933 election in chart form. It is a helpful addition to the materials a teacher needs to help students understand this phenomena. Through its vivid charts it presents an important story.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Gauging Public Opinion. By Hadley Cantril. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1944. Pp. xiv, 318. \$3.75.

This book furnishes a systematic study of the highly important and widely misunderstood new methods of surveying public opinion. It contains an extensive bibliography and is well-indexed.

Better Men for Better Times. By The Commission on American Citizenship. Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University of America, 1943. Pp. ix, 125.

Herein the reader will find a statement of the purposes and ideals which have served to guide the work of The Commission on American Citizenship of The Catholic University of America in the work they have done in building a Curriculum for the benefit of Catholic elementary schools.

No Nation Alone: A Plan for Organized Peace. By Linus R. Fike. New York: Philosophical Library, 1943. Pp. 96.

The author, now a lieutenant (jg) in the United States Navy, has had a varied career in fields appropriate to the thought and research for this book. In it he presents his ideas for a practical basis for the solution of the problems of the post-war world. Readers will find it provocative and stimulating.

Russia and the United States. By Pitirim A. Sorokin. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1944. Pp. 253. \$3.00.

The author, born in Russia but a citizen of the United States for two decades, presents a thoughtful, careful study of the similarities between Russia and the United States and shows how their destinies have been joined by this war.

American History in Schools and Colleges. By Edgar B. Wesley and Others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. Pp. xiii, 148. \$1.50.

This is the widely publicized report on the teaching and study of American history in schools and colleges. This study was sponsored by The American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for Social Studies. It is a "must" for all history and social studies teachers.

The Social Studies

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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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